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January 1946

A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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The Army University Centers in the European Theater

By JOHN DALE RUSSELL

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM developed by the Army for the off-duty time of its personnel is well known to most educators. With the coming of VE Day this program in the European theater of operations took on new significance. Men released from combat service had increased off-duty time which needed to be occupied in some constructive manner. The Information and Education Division of the Army had foreseen this situation and had made plans, beginning as far back as 1943, for an intensified educational program to be put into operation upon the cessation of hostilities.

The plans for the posthostilities educational program in the European theater embraced five major activities: (1) an increased use of the correspondence courses directed by the United States Armed Forces Institute; (2) a comprehensive system of command unit schools, staffed by teachers drawn from the military units in which the schools are located; (3) training with civilian agencies, an arrangement whereby qualified men and women from the Army are sent to civilian universities or industrial establishments in Europe to receive training in accordance with their specialized interests; (4) a centralized technical school where personnel with journeyman status in some trade take refresher courses to inform them of

recent developments and to restore skills that may have lapsed through disuse; (5) two University Study Centers offering a relatively complete program of college-level courses. This article concerns only this last-mentioned phase of the total educational program in the European theater of operations.

The plans for the two University Study Centers called for one to be set up in England and the other in France, each to care for 4,000 students at one time. The location chosen in England was Shrivenham, about twenty miles from Oxford, where a military college for the British Army had been established before the war and where the American forces had maintained a training school for some time during the war. Biarritz was chosen as the site for the University Study Center in France. This city is well known to American tourists as a seaside resort in the Basque country on the Bay of Biscay, some twenty miles from the Spanish border. Biarritz has been a playground for the nobility and wealthy people of Europe ever since it was first popularized by Empress Eugénie in the middle of the nineteenth century. The two University Study Centers were officially designated respectively as Shrivenham American University and Biarritz American University. Inasmuch as the writer of this article was stationed at Biarritz, the detailed information given here applies chiefly to that institution. The two, however, are sufficiently alike that most statements about Biarritz American University apply also to Shrivenham.

The mission of the Centers, as originally stated, is to prepare military personnel for the return to civilian life by offering opportunities for study at the college level. The policy has been to establish a program as nearly as possible like that of a normal civilian college or university and to maintain an atmosphere in which those who have been fighting the war in Europe can begin again to experience the normal life of the prewar American university. For a large number of those who will soon be discharged from the Army, it is hoped that this experience will make considerably easier the return to college and the adjustment to academic life. There is also

the opportunity to earn credits which may be transferred to civilian institutions.

For another large group of students who do not plan to attend college after being discharged from the Army, the courses of study offer opportunities for useful preparation in such fields as commerce, agriculture, engineering, and journalism. For all those privileged to attend the University Study Centers, it is expected that a welcome relief will be afforded from the usual routine of military life, a routine that, especially in the interval between military victory and final demobilization, can be tedious and boring to men of good intellectual ability.

The administrative organization of the two Army University Centers follows a typical military pattern. Each is operated as a separate unit, under its respective Base Section of Theater Service Forces, European theater. The central headquarters of the Information and Education Division, located in Paris, renders staff service and maintains general supervision over both institutions. The commandant of Biarritz American University is Brigadier General Samuel L. McCroskey. The commandant at Shrivenham is Brigadier General C. M. Thiele. The Academic Division is a major unit within each of the university organizations. The usual other administrative divisions found in an Army organization are also maintained, such as Administration (G-1), Supply (G-4), Special Services, and Headquarters Command.

The operation of a large-scale college-level educational program that does not have increased military proficiency as its immediate goal is something new for the Army, and it has required some special administrative arrangements. It was foreseen that the program would need direction from persons familiar with the operation of universities in the United States, inasmuch as the services are intended to be as much as possible like those of civilian institutions. At Shrivenham this was accomplished by putting a civilian educator, Elmer T. Peterson of the University of Iowa, in the position of deputy chief of the Academic Division, responsible immediately to

the Army officer who is chief of that Division. At Biarritz, the writer has been serving in a similar capacity but with a somewhat different administrative arrangement; instead of being a line officer, he is a special staff officer for the commanding general, with the title of dean and academic adviser. In this position he advises both the commanding general and the Army officer who is director of the Academic Division on all matters affecting the academic program. Although the plans for educational direction are different in the two institutions, both seem to have had the desired effect of maintaining an academic control that is closely in touch with standards and procedures maintained in civilian institutions.

Biarritz American University has been particularly fortunate in the selection of its commanding general and its major staff officers. General McCroskey and the director of the Academic Division, Colonel E. B. Thompson, combine superior administrative ability with an excellent and sympathetic understanding of educational problems. The heads of the other major divisions of the Army organization have proved equally capable in their own fields. They are wholeheartedly in agreement with the policy that the fundamental purpose of Biarritz American University is to maintain a sound educational program. Under the capable leadership of the commanding general, the faculty and the military staff have worked as a well-coordinated and highly successful team. The writer has no firsthand acquaintance with the administrative personnel at Shrivenham American University, but the success of its program indicates that it too has been fortunate in the selection of officers and the caliber of its military leadership.

Within the Academic Division the administrative organization follows the arrangement of subject-matter courses in eight major units, known as sections: agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, fine arts, journalism, liberal arts, and science. No attempt has been made to offer courses in medicine, dentistry, law, theology, or home economics, but otherwise the curriculum includes practically every major field of study com-

monly found in American colleges and universities. Each section is under the supervision of a chief who is a regular member of the teaching faculty. Within the larger sections, departments are organized, each under the direction of a head.

A survey that had been made by the research staff of the Information and Education Division was used as a basis for determining the probable distribution of student interest among the various fields of study, and these data also served to indicate the number of staff members needed and the probable range of courses that should be offered in each field. The accompanying table shows the numbers of courses, classes (more than one class was maintained in many courses), faculty members, and student course registrations in each field at Biarritz American University during the first term, August 20 to October 12, 1945.

NUMBER OF COURSES, CLASSES, FACULTY MEMBERS, AND STUDENT REGISTRATIONS
IN EACH ACADEMIC SECTION, BIARRITZ AMERICAN UNIVERSITY,
FIRST TERM, AUGUST 20 TO OCTOBER 12, 1945

Section	Courses	Classes	Instructors*	Student Course Registrations†
Agriculture.....	23	35	15	953
Commerce.....	38	120	55	3,178
Education.....	16	25	14	413
Engineering.....	22	28	18	503
Fine Arts.....	43	67	35	1,330
Journalism.....	11	20	11	538
Liberal Arts.....	85	171	73	3,169
Science.....	28	93	51	1,802
Total.....	266	559	272	11,886

* As of September 24, 1945.

† As of August 25, 1945.

The great majority of the courses given are at the freshman and sophomore levels. A number of upper-division courses and some graduate courses are also given in subjects where adequate facilities are available. Several of the more advanced courses that were originally listed have not been given, because it proved impossible to obtain needed supplies and equipment, or because expected faculty members did not arrive, or because student demand did not justify the offering.

The students who attend the Army University Centers are assigned by their respective commanding officers on the advice of the Information and Education officer of the unit to which they belong, the total for each Center not to exceed the previously-established limit of 4,000 students. Quotas are fixed first for students in each of the eight major fields in the academic program so that the number in each field will be in proportion to the size of the instructional staff. As previously indicated, the percentage distribution was originally derived from a survey of opinions of soldiers concerning the subjects they would like to study. After the quota for each field of study is determined, special quotas are set up for each of the major command units in the European theater. In each major command unit, the quota is again distributed among subject-matter fields in the same proportions as the total quota. Special quotas are established for Army nurses and WAC's so that female personnel will be represented in the student body in the same proportion as in the entire Army in the European theater. Commissioned officer personnel is limited to 10 percent of the total quota for each unit.

The general requirement for eligibility for assignment as a student to the Army University Centers is graduation from high school. A few exceptions were allowed in the case of mature men who were intellectually on a level suited for college work. Limitation of the program in the University Study Centers to those who have completed high school is justified, because soldiers with lower academic attainments can be served well by other phases of the educational program, particularly the correspondence courses of the United States Armed Forces Institute, the command unit schools, and the Centralized Technical School. The students who have been assigned to Centers have proved in practically every case to have been carefully chosen. In the few instances where it has been evident that the directive for the selection of students has not been followed, the soldiers have been returned immediately through channels to their parent units with a letter of explanation to their commanding officers.

The students who attended the first term at both Biarritz and Shrivenham were surprisingly mature. The median age was in the interval between twenty-four and twenty-six years. In the second term, after high-point men in the Army had been shipped back to the United States in large numbers, the average age has been about two years less than in the first term. Only 20 percent of the students at Biarritz have had more than two years of college work, but approximately 10 percent of all the students have the bachelor's degree. About fifty students in the second term at Biarritz hold degrees beyond the bachelor's.

A faculty of approximately 260 instructors was assembled for each of the two Centers. The relatively low student-faculty ratio (approximately 15.4 students for each teacher) is justified by the aim of encouraging close contact between faculty and students and a high degree of individualization in the teaching and counseling services.

The members of the instructional staff have been brought together from three different sources. Slightly more than one-third of the total was obtained from the military forces in Europe by means of a careful search for those with extensive graduate preparation and a record of successful college experience. No attention was paid to the grade or rank of the soldier if he possessed the desired qualifications. While most of them were commissioned officers, there were a considerable number of noncommissioned officers and a few privates. A smaller group, about one-eighth of the total faculty, was obtained by a similar process of screening from commissioned officer personnel in the United States; for practically all these men, the assignment to the Centers in Europe was their first foreign service. Slightly more than half of the total faculty were civilians recruited from the colleges and universities of the United States specifically for service in the Centers in Europe. The figures given above for the proportions of the groups are for Biarritz American University; distribution at Shrivenham is similar.

The recruiting of instructors in the United States was done

under a directive from the European theater of operations. Lieutenant Colonel Paul C. Packer, in civilian life dean of the School of Education at Iowa State University, was sent by the headquarters of the Information and Education Division in Europe to the Pentagon in Washington to supervise the procurement of faculty members. The plan adopted by the authorities of the Education Branch in the Pentagon for the recruiting of civilian instructors was to select first a key person in each major field of study. This selection was usually made through contact with the learned society or societies in the subject-matter field. These key persons were then brought to the Pentagon and asked to make up a list of the best college and university teachers in their respective fields. They then called these persons by long-distance telephone to invite them to join the faculties of the University Study Centers in Europe. The military men to be transferred from the United States to the University Study Center faculties were chosen by the same persons who made the contacts with civilian instructors. The number of instructors to be obtained in each field was indicated in a table of organization that had been set up by headquarters of the Information and Education Division in the European theater. Almost every man who was invited to join the faculty of the Center was eager to accept, but one circumstance or another prevented many who wished to come from participating in the program. In the remarkably short time of about one month, it was possible to make arrangements for practically all of the civilian faculty members needed for the two Centers.

The directive governing the selection of civilian faculty members in the United States laid down certain requirements. In the first place, all were to be at least forty-two years of age so that there might be no question about their having escaped earlier participation in the military forces of the country. Each had to pass a physical examination, but the requirements were only such as to give reasonable assurance that the man's physical condition would permit him to carry on the usual teaching duties of a college professor. It was neces-

sary to recruit men who were able to leave their regular positions for a period of not less than seven months and who could make arrangements to leave on relatively short notice. This was an exceedingly difficult requirement to meet, but university presidents and deans were in most cases cooperative in making arrangements for necessary leaves of absence.

The most important qualification set up for the procurement of faculty members was that they should be outstandingly good teachers. Little or no attention was paid to the record of the man's research or to the list of his publications, except as these indicated general standing in his scholarly field. There was a further limitation, somewhat elastic, on the number of faculty members to be procured from any one institution. By following these requirements, it was possible to assemble a group of instructors of extraordinarily high qualifications as teachers. In fact, it may be said without fear of contradiction that there is probably no college or university of similar size in the United States where the instructional staff as a whole has such a high average level of competence as these two Army faculties in Europe.

A review of the qualifications of the faculty at Biarritz American University will indicate the kind of persons who were brought into the project. Of the entire faculty, military men and civilians combined, more than half hold the doctor's degree. If the fields in which doctor's degrees are seldom given, such as art, music, dramatics, engineering, and journalism, are excluded, the percentage of faculty having the highest degree is sixty. Of the 244 faculty members who have had recent connections with colleges and universities in the United States, 11 were deans, 43 were heads of departments, and 48 were full professors in their respective institutions.

The faculty of the Center works as a unit without any distinction being drawn between civilian and military personnel. Assignment to duty as section chief or department head is made in terms of the qualifications of the personnel, without regard to military or civilian status. It has happened in most cases that these administrative officers have been civilians.

The members of the instructional staff who have responsibility for teaching classes are all given the title of instructor without the distinctions of academic rank that are customary in civilian institutions. Those with administrative responsibility as chiefs of sections and heads of departments are considered merely as instructors with added duties of an executive sort. In addition to the instructors, twenty-nine men are classified as assistant instructors. These members of the faculty do not have final responsibility for teaching any classes but serve as laboratory assistants, paper readers, or in other capacities commonly recognized in civilian institutions. The assistant instructors are all enlisted men drawn from the armed forces in the European theater. Practically all of them have the bachelor's degree and 38 percent at Biarritz have the master's degree.

The faculty members represent a wide geographical and institutional distribution. Those at Biarritz have had recent connections as faculty members with 145 different colleges and universities in the United States located in forty-one different states. Their degrees represent 174 different colleges and universities in the United States and 13 other institutions in foreign countries. The doctor's degrees held by the faculty members come from all the better known universities in the United States.

The instructional program is set up to operate for terms eight weeks in length. An interval of ten days to two weeks is allowed between terms, to ship out one group of students and to receive the next group and get them registered and ready for classes. Registration is completed prior to the beginning of the term. In order to distribute as widely as possible the opportunity for attendance, it is the general policy not to permit students to attend two consecutive terms. At the end of the first term in Biarritz, however, 2 percent of the students were selected by the faculty to be allowed to remain during the second term as a reward for superior performance.

The instructional program is set up as nearly as possible like that of prewar days in the colleges and universities of the

United States. No acceleration is attempted. The typical course meets five times weekly for periods of fifty minutes for eight weeks with a total of thirty-nine or forty meetings during the term. Two hours of outside preparation are expected for each hour of lecture, with corresponding adjustments for laboratory and studio and courses which meet for double periods. The normal program for a student is three courses, and only students who can give evidence of distinctly superior ability are allowed to attempt more than three courses. Courses are designated by a system which assigns numbers in the 100 series to freshman courses, in the 200 series to sophomore courses, and in the 300 and 400 series to upper-division and graduate courses.

For purposes of scheduling, credit values are assigned to the courses. The typical course meeting five times weekly for eight weeks is given a credit value of three, inasmuch as the amount of subject matter covered in such a course is approximately that of a three-hour course given for one semester. The general instructional situation is much like that of a typical summer school in a university in the United States.

An important part of the educational experience for the students in the Centers is the schedule of excursions and trips to points of interest. For example, at Biarritz it is readily possible to arrange for visits by students of anthropology and sociology to the caves in the Vezere valley where the early discoveries of cave-man life were made. The famous shrine at Lourdes is within easy distance for a week-end trip. Language students find great value in trips to the nearby villages of the Basque country to observe local festivals and customs and to carry on conversation with French-speaking natives. Art students make week-end excursions to Paris. Students of history are able to visit numerous points of interest. Students of agriculture can see many examples of methods of farming and breeds of livestock which are uncommon in the United States. Engineering students inspect water-power projects in the Pyrenees Mountains. Marine biology is especially interesting with an ocean at one's doorstep. The geologists

have an abundant range of field material, including the well-known sand-dune complex stretching north to the mouth of the Gironde, the exposed strata of the foothill country in and near Biarritz, and the rugged peaks of the Pyrenees themselves only a short distance away. This almost endless variety of field trips supplements the usual types of classroom and laboratory instruction in an especially effective manner.

The two institutions at Biarritz and Shrivenham differ considerably in their physical facilities. Shrivenham has utilized an installation that had been previously used for educational purposes with little transformation necessary. The city of Biarritz, on the contrary, had never before had an educational institution beyond its small local schools. A large amount of space could be obtained at Biarritz because the prewar crowds of summer visitors were not able to take their customary vacations at the seaside. Hotels, casinos, garages, store rooms, and villas were taken over and converted into billets, mess halls, offices, classrooms, laboratories, studios, a library, and other installations needed for the institution. The library, for example, was established in the former gambling room of the municipal casino. Villa Rochefoucauld, where Queen Victoria was accustomed to stay on her visits to Biarritz, became the studios of the art department. A large building, formerly housing a department store, is now the center for Special Service activities and an enlisted men's club. The palatial water-front hotels are all used as student billets. The professors live in villas owned by wealthy people who, in former years, spent the season at Biarritz. The entire facilities used in the program both at Biarritz and Shrivenham cost the taxpayers of the United States nothing, because they were obtained on reverse lend-lease.

The initiation of the program in the two Centers presented numerous problems. Although the plans for their development had been in the making for at least two years, nothing could be done to put them into effect until VE Day. Immediately upon the capitulation of Germany, however, the need for these educational facilities became imperative, and every

effort was made to start operations at the earliest possible date. To select the faculty, assemble and transport it to the proper places in Europe, to outline and organize the courses of instruction, to obtain the necessary supplies and equipment, and in the case of Biarritz to adapt to academic use building space that was never designed for such purposes were all tasks of monumental proportions.

The plans called for the opening of the Center at Shrivenham on July 30, 1945, and the one at Biarritz three weeks later, on August 20, 1945. These dates were met but only by the most strenuous efforts of all concerned. This is not the place to recount the disappointments that were encountered and the obstacles that were overcome. Certainly never before in history has an educational enterprise of such scope been put into operation so quickly and with as much efficiency. The writer's conviction is that no organization other than the United States Army could have done the job so well within the required time limit.

Although most of those connected with the planning of the University Study Centers had anticipated that the procurement of faculty members would constitute the most difficult problem, that did not prove to be the case. Both at Shrivenham and Biarritz there were some shortages in staff on the opening date but this was not the fault of procurement; rather it was due to delays in transportation and to the inability of military personnel to get prompt releases upon being requisitioned from their current assignments.

The greatest single difficulty was academic supplies. As previously noted, this was a new enterprise for the Army to operate, and many of the items needed were not readily available through the usual military supply channels. The variety of supplies required for a university program is tremendous, and the exact needs could not well be foreseen until the faculty members arrived on the scene. In any case, procurement of supplies generally takes considerable time in Army procedure.

Serious shortages of supplies and equipment in many fields at the opening of the Centers necessitated the cancellation of

a number of courses. For example musical instruments could not be obtained for Biarritz until the first term was nearly over, and in that term courses such as band, orchestra, and individual instruction in music had to be cancelled. In other cases where supplies were short or nonexistent, many strange improvisations had to be adopted to keep the instructional program going. For example, the art department lacked oil and used kerosene for mixing colors in the oil-painting course.

Some textbooks which had been ordered failed to arrive in time for the opening of classes, and in several cases instructors had to teach "from the cuff" without even a personal copy of the text for the course. In a faculty of lower quality this might have been disastrous, but the instructors who had been obtained for the Centers were so familiar with their own fields that the early shortage of texts and reference books was merely an inconvenience rather than a catastrophe. Gradually the supply problem was met and solved, and by the end of the first term most of the needed items were available.

The actual initiation of the program for the two institutions involved operations at three widely separated points: Washington, Paris, and at the institution itself. As previously described, the procurement of faculty members to be shipped from the United States took place in Washington from the headquarters of the Education Branch in the Pentagon. The preliminary lists of texts, reference books, and academic supplies were made up in the Pentagon by those who participated in the selection of faculty members. The Library of Congress cooperated with the officials in the Pentagon by furnishing a selected list of reference books for the libraries of the two Centers.

At the very time the procurement of faculty and the ordering of books was being done in the Pentagon, another group was actively working in the Paris headquarters of the Information and Education Division. This group was responsible for selecting faculty members from the qualified personnel in the military forces in the European theater, laid down the first outlines of courses of study to be offered, and prepared the

first catalogue. The selection of the site for the institution in France also was made at Paris headquarters. The ordering of general supplies needed for the military posts was carried on from the European theater headquarters.

The first group of faculty members from the United States sailed from New York on the Queen Elizabeth on the morning of July 5, 1945. There were 150 persons in the shipment, two-thirds of whom were destined for Shrivenham and one-third for Biarritz. On the ship considerable time was spent by the group in planning and arranging courses in each field of study.

The arrival of each faculty group at its respective destination initiated the third stage of the planning. Here the ideas of those who had planned separately in Washington and Paris had to be brought into coordination. The projected program of course offerings had to be adjusted to the specific qualifications available in the faculty. This proved to be a continuous process, for new faculty members have been arriving almost daily ever since the program started. Each incoming faculty member had his own specialty which he liked to teach, and each had his own notion of how the description of his courses should read.

The first edition of the catalogue for Biarritz American University was just going to the mimeographing machine when the first group of instructors arrived in Paris on July 13, 1945. During the five weeks before the opening of classes in Biarritz, the catalogue was completely revised and reissued in mimeograph form. A printed edition of the first catalogue for Biarritz American University was finally issued after the first term was under way. The catalogue for the second term as well as a faculty directory were issued in printed form before the beginning of the second term. These two last-mentioned documents for Biarritz American University (Bulletins 2 and 3) are being sent to each of the 1,700 colleges and universities in the United States. A supply of copies is also available at the headquarters of the Education Branch, Informa-

tion and Education Division, Pentagon Building, Washington, D. C.

The installation in Biarritz, as has already been noted, involved special problems of physical plant, because this was the first institution of higher education to be set up in that location. Upon their arrival faculty members went to work diligently to supervise the modifications necessary to change the existing facilities into suitable academic quarters. The development of science laboratories required considerable ingenuity and improvisation. Some laboratories were not yet complete by the opening date of the first term, but during that term reasonably good facilities and equipment were provided for all the courses given. Little or no advanced instruction was attempted in any of the science departments.

As this article is being written, the work of the second term in both Shrivenham and Biarritz is well under way, and there has been sufficient opportunity to obtain definite evaluation of the services rendered. The general conviction of all who have had opportunity to observe these institutions is that they have been successful far beyond expectations. Visitors, both American and foreign, military and civilian, have come in a constant stream to observe; without exception they have gone away with words of highest praise for what is being done. The French press has been especially kind in giving publicity to the work of Biarritz American University.

The faculty members are unanimous in saying that they have never had a more stimulating and enthusiastic group of students to teach. They are impressed by the maturity of the soldiers who have been fighting the war in Europe and who now come as students. Such students delight a competent professor by their searching questions, by their impatience with trivialities, and by the seriousness and earnestness with which they attack their studies. The faculty members agree that they have seldom had classes in their own institutions that have covered as much subject matter or that have done their assignments as thoroughly as those they have been instructing in the Army University Centers.

The students in turn are deeply appreciative of privileges they have had. They say that the teaching has been the best they have ever experienced anywhere. They are grateful for the relief from the usual routines of military life. Most of them were amazed how quickly they eased back into academic life and took on the typical habits and attitudes of civilian students. These soldiers have learned much more than subject matter during their stay at the Centers. The discovery that they can readily adjust themselves to the life of civilian students is perhaps as important as anything else that has occurred during their stay. Most of them were doubtful about their ability to forget the war and the Army and to settle down to intellectual pursuits. That they could do this easily and quickly is significant not only for them personally, but also for institutions of higher education in the United States which may expect to receive them as students for continued education after their discharge from the Army.

The choice of courses by the students provides some significant index of probable trends in course offerings in American colleges and universities if they are to serve the demands of those who are discharged from the military forces. The most surprising discovery is the strength of the demand for courses in art. It was never possible to get enough teachers or supplies to meet half the demand. Music is another field in which the demand was far beyond the available facilities. For example, at Biarritz there was offered in the second term opportunity for beginning instruction in piano; the first two hours of registration exhausted all the facilities which had been arranged for that instruction and, although the original facilities were increased sixfold, not half of those who requested this course could even then be accommodated. Commerce is another area in which demand for instruction was heavy; accounting, typewriting, elementary courses in business management, and salesmanship were fields in which enrollments were high. Foreign languages are extremely popular; classes in beginning French, German, Spanish, Italian, and

Russian all are filled and the capacity often severely taxed, particularly in French and German.

The coming of VJ Day made an important change in the outlook of the two Centers in the European theater. They were set up originally to serve principally troops awaiting re-deployment, but it was readily seen that this function must rapidly shift to service for the Army of Occupation. Both Shrivenham and Biarritz had begun their first terms when the Japanese surrender took place.

The rapid shipment of troops back to America after VJ Day created considerable disturbance in the University programs. Men whose parent units were alerted for return to the United States in most cases wanted to get home at the earliest possible date, and approximately one-fourth of the students of the first term had left the Centers for shipment home by the end of the first term. The "home-going fever" was highly infectious; it affected not only the students who had prospects of an early return, but also all those with whom they came in contact. For the second term at both institutions only those were accepted as students whose "points" were low or who agreed to stay through the term regardless of the opportunity to return to the United States.

At the present writing, changes in the provisions for educational opportunities at the college level are under consideration in the European theater. Announcement was made early in October 1945 that both Biarritz and Shrivenham would close at the end of the second term. Their closing, however, would not mean the discontinuance of opportunities for higher education for soldiers in the Army of Occupation, for plans are being developed for new installations to offer courses at the college level. Faculty members who wish to continue in the educational program are assured of opportunity to remain in that work for the period of their contracts. The service rendered by the two Centers has been so outstandingly successful that something of the kind must undoubtedly be continued, even though it may take on a somewhat different institutional form.

The ventures into fields of higher education by the American Army in the European theater may have considerable influence on the entire operation of military service during peacetime. The very obvious success of the two University Study Centers and the great demand for their services indicate that the Army may become an important agency of higher education. The attractiveness of service in the peacetime Army may readily be increased for men of ability by affording appropriate opportunities for continued education in the usual academic branches. The evidence from the experience at Biarritz and Shrivenham is that the Army can operate such a program on an entirely satisfactory basis.

Make Haste Slowly on Peacetime Conscription

By GEORGE FORT MILTON.

THE ADVENT of the atomic bomb, fundamentally modifying the art of war, makes it more necessary than ever for the American people to take a hard, straight look at the claim that peacetime conscription is *essential* to our national defense.

The implications of atomic energy in war are still too boundless to be foreseen fully even by the scientists who achieved nuclear fission. But we do know that on August 5, 1945, ten men in a Flying Fortress destroyed the enemy city of Hiroshima with a bomb which more than 300,000 civilians working at their normal trades had labored to produce.

This lends dramatic emphasis to war's dominant trend in respect of the manpower required for military action and the civilian support necessary to maintain the soldiers. Before the dawn of history, a primitive fighting man could obtain his own food, fashion his own weapons, and do his own fighting. Then each combat soldier was self-sufficient and required *no men behind the lines to equip and supply him*. But as wars have succeeded one another, the factors of provisions, equipment, and materiel have become increasingly important. As a result, the ratio of soldiers and sailors to civilian workers has continuously decreased.

Reporting as Chief of Staff, United States Army, for the biennium ending June 30, 1945, General of the Army George C. Marshall estimated that 80,000,000 Americans were directly involved in the prosecution of the war. Of this number, about 14,000,000 were in the armed forces, of which only 1,500,000 were combat troops. These required some 66,000,000 civilian workers to supply their needs. The ratio of soldiers to suppliers was 7 to 33, of combat soldiers to suppliers 1 to 44.

It is deeply ironic that at this particular point in history, when scientific developments have greatly decreased the num-

ber of men needed for military action in comparison to the number of those practicing civilian skills required for their supply, the military authorities of the United States should contend that efficient national defense demands the introduction of peacetime conscription.

Especially is this the case when we consider the fact that universal military training would introduce a system under which drafted youths would spend a valuable part of their developing years in training for a type of military service in which there will be less and less need of manpower—and to the neglect of basic instruction in the physical sciences, a field in which the aid of technologically trained men may be irreplaceable in war as well as in peace.

Since clubs and stones gave way to javelins and swords, manpower on the battlefield has yielded steadily diminishing returns. Conscription would have had its maximum advantage in primitive combat. For the last two centuries, its usefulness has been increasingly problematic. Such factors as the professional competence of an army's command and staff in discerning the strategic situation and organizing the military services to cope with it, the types and volume of the nation's war production, and the availability of adequate scientific and technological skills have become as important as manpower in a country's success in war.

Indifferent provision of any of these essential requirements can lead to an army's collapse in war, irrespective of the numbers, personal courage, or military training of its soldiers at the beginning of a war. The controlling question about peacetime conscription, therefore, is how much it would be likely to strengthen our national defense.

WHAT IS NEEDED FOR NATIONAL DEFENSE?

The phrase "national defense" is a moving abstraction which eludes exact definition but affords a convenient springboard for implementing concepts and purposes which often cancel one another. Its intriguing elasticity was instanced when the United States government furnished Spam for Britain's

breakfast tables, fuel for the planes of China, and icebreakers for Russia's Arctic fishing fleet under the 1941 Lend-Lease Act's authorization that American goods could be made available to an ally if the President would certify the supply of each item "essential to the defense of the United States."

Our military authorities have used the term interchangeably to authorize the defense of our continental limits against attack from abroad, the dispatch overseas of our military forces in order to prevent our native soil from becoming a theater of war, and currently the maintenance abroad of contingents to occupy defeated enemy countries and to secure the peace of the world.

The Congress properly delayed in determining this country's postwar military establishment, among other reasons because the heads of our military services have found it hard to agree on its character, composition, and size. The elaborate hearings of the special Committee on Postwar Military Policy established by the House of Representatives in 1943 have provided a sounding board for various and often sharply opposed points of view.

On September 1, 1944, General Marshall submitted a memorandum recommending the smallest possible professional Regular Army after the war with the largest possible number of civilian reserves. He urged the adoption of a system under which "every able-bodied American shall be trained to defend his country," and every trainee would be kept in reserve status for six years after completing his year's basic training. He renewed these recommendations in testimony before various committees and in his October 10, 1945, report to the Secretary of War.

President Truman addressed Congress October 22, 1945, urging twelve months of universal military training for youths from seventeen to twenty-one years of age without any exceptions for reasons of dependency status or physical disability. He proposed that youths in the latter category be given technological training to make them proficient in electronics, meteorology, and other sciences, on the assumption

that a year's application would train them in such disciplines.

The War Department has estimated that under such a program, about 960,000 youths a year would be available for training. After completing twelve months in military camps, each youth would become a part of the first-line military reserve for six years. The proponents expected that an unorganized first-line reserve of about 4,800,000 men with basic training would be available six years after the new program went into effect.

The President's proposal also provided that the new reservists would not be part of the military establishment, but in time of need would be chosen through a selective service process, as had been done in World Wars I and II. No plan for annual or other refreshment of reservists' training through short-term camps was disclosed, though for half a century such retraining methods have been a basic element of European universal conscription programs.

The proponents of the peacetime training program insist that it not be termed conscription, although they do not deny that it would be mandatory for the youth to dissociate himself from other interests and go to camp for the required year. They do not explain the difference between an involuntary training period and conscription. They deny that they seek this first-line reserve of several million trained men in order to create a new mass army if war comes, but do not answer the criticism that this may be a distinction without a difference.

The assumption that the United States would require an army of several million men, whether it be called a mass army or not, for defense of our national interests in a future war has professionally competent critics as well as advocates. Hanson W. Baldwin, military writer for the *New York Times*, points out that military obligations extending far beyond our borders require us to maintain outlying bases which can be used as "bastions for defense, springboards for the offensive." This very fact makes it unnecessary to maintain a great land

army for the defense of the continental United States at the start of a war.

Writing in *Harper's Magazine* for March 1945, Mr. Baldwin points out that our national defense would depend chiefly on air and naval power and that the military establishment to insure that the land fighting would be done on foreign soil would require four things:

1. The best equipment in the world, with our industries able to produce masses of it quickly;
2. Research and scientific facilities to keep our military design ahead of that of the other nations;
3. A substantial force of professional soldiers, sailors, and airmen of high competence, trained to use this modern equipment and imaginative enough to develop new tactics of war;
4. A reserve corps of officers "selected for their outstanding qualities of leadership."

Both the War Department's conscription plan and Mr. Baldwin's four-phase program were brought forward before the unlocking of the atom introduced unknowns into nearly every element of military action. The sweep and intensity of the destruction at Hiroshima and Nagasaki have profoundly modified the nature of war. The factors of terrain, natural resources, materiel, and manpower involved in yesterday's estimate of the situation have altered values—how much and in what respects no one can be certain.

Whatever may have been the pre-Hiroshima equation for efficient national defense, no longer can it be declared as an irrefutable fact that the peacetime training of an annual class of conscript youths is "essential" for the national defense of the United States. It may be that such will later prove to be the case. But it is altogether possible that it may become plain within a year or two that mass armies, the goal of conscription, have become as obsolete as the Black Prince's bowmen with stout English yew.

The socially intelligent course for the United States to adopt during this period of transition is to go slow in reshaping our military establishment until we can discern with

some clearness the effects the atomic bomb and other lethal developments have had on the art of war.

We must assume that our military planners will move competently to adapt the strategy and tactics of the last phase of the war against Germany to the new weapon which accelerated the surrender of Japan. But it is necessary to remember that the military mind is not noted for imagination and resiliency, even under the pressure of necessity. France ended World War I with the finest land army in the world. She started World War II with 1918 equipment and ideas, and Hitler's blitzkrieg forced her surrender in six weeks.

There is no way to estimate how much time will be required for our military tacticians and technicians to adjust their minds and imaginations to this new weapon of incalculable force, but it is certain that it will profoundly modify our present military methods. As we harness the regular flow of atomic force from uranium or other substances, we shall have to adjust our military, economic, social, and political institutions to these new variables and unknowns. First in order, indeed, is the military establishment. Peacetime conscription should not precede this adjustment.

FOUR FACTORS IN POSTWAR MILITARY NEEDS

Some military men contend that until we can discern more clearly the expectable effects of nuclear fission on the methods and effects of combat, America's postwar military policy must continue to be governed by the principal factors which had shaped our military requirements prior to August 5, 1945. The argument is not without force, because combat experience during the determinative campaigns of 1943-45 will constitute the only presently dependable points of departure for the new implements, techniques, and organizations of offense and defense.

Four considerations should be decisive in determining our immediate postwar military manpower requirements.

1. The commitments for keeping the peace of the world. The San Francisco charter for the United Nations Organi-

zation does not specify the size or component arms of service of the contingent the United States or any other member of the United Nations would be asked to provide. The place or character of the threat to peace is unpredictable, but it can be assumed that, in the beginning at least, small efficient task forces rather than large expeditionary armies will be required of us.

2. The probable nature of task-force employment. This must be known if annual classes of conscripts are to develop the particular skills and aptitudes they would need if Congress should call them to the colors in a national emergency. If the past be the guidepost to the future, they would be used wherever force is required to implement our national interest and effectuate our national will.

All our combat action in the last three major wars—Spanish-American and World Wars I and II—took place beyond the continental limits of the United States. It can be assumed that our reserves will be required, in the main, to supplement Regular Army and National Guard task forces in operations overseas or to perform such tasks themselves. Therefore the individuals to comprise them should be trained for offensive operations before being furloughed to the unorganized reserves. Then, if in a time of emergency they were selected to join the nation's forces, some of their earlier training-camp experience would be relevant to the tasks to be performed.

3. The size, organization, and equipment of America's peacetime professional army. This will determine the size and character of the unorganized reserve we are seeking to build. We must make sure, however, that the authorized strength of the professional Regular Army does not sink to such a low point as was reached in 1922, only four years after the armistice which ended World War I. Should that error be repeated and should it become once more only a caretaking, housekeeping, and token force, most of the Regulars probably would be in garrisons overseas. In such a circumstance, the unorganized reserves would have to back up the National Guard as our first line of defense on the continent itself.

4. The peacetime character of the professional officers'

corps. This would be of critical importance in determining whether conscription could have the effects sought by its sponsors. If the Regular establishment should be reduced to "the smallest possible size," as President Truman and General Marshall have urged, the effectiveness of the instruction given the trainees becomes of the utmost consequence. These youths must receive a training which would make a sufficiently lasting impression to enable them, years later when selected for service, to become first-rate fighting men.

If it is expected to train about 960,000 youths each year, the problem of efficient instruction of the peacetime conscripts is of the first magnitude. Some authorities believe that the personnel required for instruction, administration, and servicing of the draft camps would run about as large proportionately as it does in the nation's schools. Military experts are talking about a force of 100,000 officers required for the instruction of an annual draft, and the emphasis the President and others have placed on training-camp instruction in electronics, meteorology, and other exacting technologies makes it plain that the training staff will need to be of the highest quality; otherwise the training would likely be indifferent.

The size of the training task means that it would be necessary for the government to attract an appropriate share of the nation's elite to such service. Whether the instructors perform their duties as National Guard officers, reserve officers, or as officers of the professional Regular Army, the new situation will call for a considerable enlargement of the satisfactions subalterns have found hitherto in military service in the United States in time of peace. Young men's expectations of income and job security would have to be more nearly met, and ways would have to be found to provide prestige and respect, which are quite as essential factors in the formula of satisfactions as the other elements involved in men's choices of careers.

THE HISTORY OF CONSCRIPTION IN EUROPE

America must decide the issue of peacetime conscription without the benefit of direct experience with it in our own

country. Except for the fourteen months before Pearl Harbor, enforced military service here has been confined to the Civil War and World Wars I and II.

Peacetime conscription is one of the few social institutions of Western Europe which did not follow immigrants to America. Many, indeed, came here to escape it, and since the birth of the Republic there has been a general feeling in this country that it is not compatible with our way of life.

We cannot escape history, and it is plain that the United States government should not introduce the peacetime draft until our people have become convinced that it is essential to our national security. Universal military training involves much more than strengthening our peacetime military establishments through providing reserves. Its adoption would profoundly affect our social, educational, and economic life. We should not introduce it unless we understand what we are doing and are convinced there is no acceptable alternative.

To get any real sense of its impact on a nation, we must examine the experience of great powers like France and Germany, with dense populations in small areas and bitter enemies on their borders, and of Russia whose area and population exceed our own.

Modern European history shows that universal military training is not always the magic wand to bring success in war. More often than not, its usefulness has been determined by two factors, one internal to the conscription system, the other altogether external to it.

The internal factor is the reaction of drafted youths to the state's coercion in withdrawing them from school, work, or home for military service of one or more years. There were junctures in the affairs of a nation when most of its young men felt a personal stake in its welfare, an individual self-interest which led them to respond gladly to a call to the colors and to contribute to the national defense.

Many were the times, however, when the men subject to conscription avoided or resisted it as an intolerable interference with their way of life and would take the greatest

risks to keep from being used in imperialistic or chauvinistic adventures. Americans at the turn of the century were familiar with the explanation many hard-working Germans gave for coming to the United States: "to escape military service." This was generally regarded as an honorable reason for leaving the old country.

The national benefit resulting from the conscript's identifying the national defense with his personal self-interest was shown in the first years of France's conscription. The Republic was in danger of collapse at home and defeat in the field in 1793 when she proclaimed the doctrine of the nation in arms and instituted a *levée en masse*. This brought merchants, lawyers, artisans, peasants, and sans-cullottes to the fight for the rights of man.

Conscription provided the Republic of the Revolution with an enormous, hitherto untapped reservoir of human energy—the citizen fighting for his own self-interest, for his personal stake in a society which had guaranteed him liberty, equality, and fraternity—if the Revolution were successful.

This principle of the citizen, the common man, fighting for his personal stake in the country's success proved a mighty engine for the republican cause. It carried General Moreau's armies across the Rhine, General Bonaparte's across the Alps and then past the Pyramids.

But long before the Little Corporal finished converting the Republic into the Empire, his soldiers fought no more for freedom but for the glory of the battle and the spoils of war. France's conscription system was being worked overtime to provide recruits to offset the toll of victory and the attrition of campaigns, and Napoleon's exactions drained France's manpower dry long before the Grand Army's retreat from Moscow. Vain were the orders the Emperor rushed from the Elbe to Paris proclaiming the country in danger and decreeing enrollment from the cradle to the grave.

The French people knew that the allied columns threatened not France but the Empire, the youths he sought to levy saw no reason to risk their lives for Napoleon's power and glory.

Napoleon displayed his strategic genius in the fighting from East Prussia to Paris, but the gaps in the ranks were not filled. The failure of the conscription system was, perhaps, one of the principal reasons the Empire collapsed in 1814 and Napoleon abdicated his throne.

Prussia's draft experience provides similarly significant examples of its value when recruits feel a personal stake in the common defense and its defects when this condition does not exist. Napoleon's severity to Prussia after his overwhelming victory at Jena in 1806 led Baron von Stein, King Frederick William II's chief Minister of State, to try to redeem the kingdom from ruin by borrowing the principle the French had used in 1793. He perceived that the French elixir had been the conscript's belief that it was to his personal self-interest to serve in the standing army and then as a reservist in the *Landwehr*. But inasmuch as Prussia was an absolute monarchy, sustained by nobles with great feudal estates, the reformers could not promise the peasants the liberty, equality, and fraternity which had stimulated the French.

But Stein found a smaller but still substantial stake for them by forcing a reluctant monarch to issue edicts releasing Prussia's peasants from personal bondage to the land and according other rights and privileges to artisans, shopkeepers, and clerks.

This proved a real lift under the wings for Prussia's peasants and workers, a personal incentive for their effort and sacrifice for the state. A continually renewed stream of conscripts received basic training, were furloughed to the reserve, and waited for the tocsin of uprising. The severity of the French occupation built fires under all classes. Upon Napoleon's Russian debacle, the new people's army raised the banners for the War of the Liberation. Stein's conscripts played an essential part in the Emperor's 1814 surrender.

After Waterloo, soldiers furloughed to the *Landwehr* regarded it as a sort of people's militia, a liberal force Prussia needed to offset the reactionary autocracy of the Hohenzollern regime. Militia assembly days were punctuated by

politics as well as drill. Most of the reservists approved the liberal revolutions which swept over Europe in the 1840's and rejoiced when the King of Prussia bent to the storm and proclaimed his intention of becoming a constitutional monarch.

In 1849-50, Russia and Austria came to his rescue; the King violated his pledge and summoned the army to disperse the elected legislature and suppress the constitutional state. Several *landwehr* formations refused to fire on their fellow citizens, were treated as mutineers, and shot. This ended the liberals' dream that the draft could be a democratic force. Within a decade Bismarck and Moltke married their mass army to the industrial revolution. After 1860 conscription was the principal agent of Hohenzollern aggrandizement.

THE RUSSIAN EXPERIENCE

Imperial Russia did not adopt conscription until 1864. Interestingly enough, she did not do so because of danger from a foreign foe, as with France in 1793, nor to expel an enemy army of occupation, as with Prussia after Jena. Her purpose was to repress the liberal spirit evoked by the emancipation of the serfs three years earlier.

The White Army's sorry showing in the Crimean War had opened the eyes of Czar Alexander II to the perilous position of his throne. The young monarch studied the fundamental factors in the breakdown and came to the conclusion that Russia's defense of Sevastopol had failed because the masses felt no personal stake in their country's success. He undertook to supply this stake to millions of Russians by striking the shackles off the serfs. His 1861 decree ending the peasants' bondage to the land did tremendous things for the Slav spirit, and a new nationalism and liberalism swept the steppes.

The nobility and plutocracy feared that these stirrings of liberty were imperiling their own privileges and pressed the Czar to channel off these dangerous new currents. They warned the Autocrat of All the Russias against becoming the servant of the people.

The Czar adopted their counter-revolutionary program, which involved strengthening the state's control of the Orthodox Church, suppressing peasant efforts to acquire land, and curbing the liberal fervor of the students in the universities.

Their chief reliance, however, was universal military service. Its antidemocratic purpose was made plain by the wholesale exemptions given because of birth, status, or wealth, while sons of the former slaves of the land were punished for the least infraction of the military code.

The exemptions of whole categories and classes of youths of nobility or wealth aroused so much bitterness among the moujiks that officers were murdered, riots were frequent, and desertions knew no bounds. In 1870 the Czar tried to take the curse off the system through a new law proclaiming the defense of Russian territory the "sacred duty" of all Russians irrespective of "class or position."

But the precept was more honored in the breach than in the observance, and the conscription system continued a shackle on freedom until the Empire's end in 1917. Historians of the war on the Eastern Front list resentment against conscription's injustices as one of the principal causes of the Kerensky revolution.

Lenin and Trotzky did not turn to the draft until six months after "the ten days that shook the world." During the time of their preparation to challenge Kerensky's regime, they searched the Petrograd factories for remnants of the Red Guards they had trained to lead the abortive 1905 revolution, because these men would have their hearts in the Bolshevik cause. In November 1917 when the revolt occurred, these Red Guards led the attacks in Petrograd, Moscow, Kharkov, Samara, and other key spots. Lenin had been wise to seek soldiers whose hearts were in the cause.

Then the humiliating peace of Brest-Litovsk lit the fuse for four years of civil war. Denekin, Kolchak, Kornilov, and Wrangel headed armies of former allies, czarists, ex-prisoners of war, and foreign adventurers, which ranged from Odessa and Archangel to Vladivostok. In desperate need of soldiers

In April 1918, the Communist government proclaimed general military training as a "principle" of public safety, announced the reorganization of the Red Army to replace the Red Guard, and drafted 350,000 men.

High desertions soon compelled the All-Russian Congress of the Soviets to order compulsory mobilization. But while all males between eighteen and forty must register, only "working elements" were called to the colors. The Bolshevik government deliberately excluded from its early drafts all who did not belong to the working class. The more pressing the military peril, the more anxious they were that their soldiers be firm in the soviet faith, and the bar against non-working elements was not removed for several years after the end of the civil wars.

This insistence on securing the soldier's interest in the success of his government became one of the pillars of Red Army morale. The Kremlin never neglected the internal factor so important to conscription's success.

IT TAKES MORE THAN SOLDIERS TO WIN A WAR

No less important to effective national defense are those factors which are altogether external to conscription. Of course manpower is indispensable to military action, a nation must procure it to implement its foreign policy, and conscription is one of the available methods of doing so.

But it cannot be repeated too often that conscription is only a means to this end and not the end. Being only a tool, it has in itself no ethical significance and is good, bad, or indifferent in accordance with the way it is used. This explains why factors other than training manpower for military service generally determine a country's fate in war.

Principal among these are: (1) the competence of the top command and staff of the nation's military services, (2) the proper selection and training of its military officers, (3) adequate provision of needed weapons and supplies, and (4) the scientific and technological research to make possible new

or improved weapons and the assurance that these can be put promptly into large-scale production in case of need.

Unless measures to assure these imperatives of real preparedness are integrated with peacetime conscription, it is open to serious question whether it would help or harm us the more. Should the draft lull us into a false sense of security, it might be as full of menace to our national future as the Trojan horse was to Troy.

Few faults can be more costly to a country than poor generalship, as France has found to her sorrow three times in the last seventy-five years. When Napoleon III declared war against Prussia in 1870, his Minister of War boasted that the French Army was ready "to the last gaiter button." But the mobilization of the veteran professional army showed that it lacked manpower, weapons, ammunition, supplies, and transport—everything it takes to win a war except valor. Moltke's skillful use of railroads to concentrate and advance his armies upset French counter-preparations. Within six weeks Bazaine was beaten in the field and besieged in Metz, the Emperor's other field army surrounded, defeated, and forced to surrender at Sedan.

The fault was not lack of patriotism or courage among France's fighting men. The Army of the Loire which carried on for the provisional republic gave Moltke's legions plenty of trouble and substantially softened the terms of the treaty of peace. The weakness was the decayed but self-important high command and the incompetent General Staff with which Louis Napoleon had begun the war.

World War I has been well termed the war of lost opportunities, and among the greatest of these was Germany's opportunity to knock out France in the first few weeks. She lost it through no fault of her conscription system but as the consequence of an error of judgment made by the younger Moltke, nephew of the great Marshal and in 1914 Chief of the German General Staff.

The alliance between Russia and France in 1894 confronted the Reich with the certainty that when war came it would be:

on two fronts. Knowing that Russia's mobilization would be slow, the great strategist Schlieffen planned to defend East Prussia with the fewest possible forces while the main weight of the Reichswehr would swing south on the Belgian plain, take the French Army in the rear, and crush it. Reserve formations would be used as regulars, because every possible corps must be added to the right flank—and retreat in East Prussia was a calculated risk.

Schlieffen's plan was in effect when World War I began, the Russian road-roller moved into East Prussia, and the German juggernaut crashed through Belgium. But the jittery commander in the East Prussian theater clamored for reinforcements, and Moltke weakly yielded the Twenty-first Army Corps from the enveloping right wing. It did not reach East Prussia in time to add to the triumph of Tannenburg, but had it stayed in the West, Kluck's right wing probably would not have been overextended and the Allies could not have recovered at the Marne. Germany never had another such chance during the rest of the war.

Nonetheless, France's General Staff had completely misinterpreted the Kaiser's war plan, and the French Army was about to be knocked out of the war when the compensatory German blunder led to the so-called "miracle of the Marne."

The French Republic did not suffer from any lack of trained military manpower in the beginning stages of the war. Having instituted conscription in the seventies, she had built up adequate trained reserves. The trouble was caused by the unwillingness of the Commander in Chief, General Joffre, and his staff to increase the number of divisions available for the initial battle by sending the organized reserve formations to the front; they preferred to leave them at the rear depots for use as replacements for the casualties and attrition of the war.

"Papa" Joffre had not erred because of the stress of battle but because of a new plan of defense against Germany adopted in 1911 by the Council of War—the famous Plan XVII, which reflected an active inferiority complex French professional officers had nourished since the humiliating defeats of

the Franco-Prussian War. This led them to overcompensate for their predecessor's mistakes and to insist on the validity in all circumstances of Napoleon's maxim that in war the moral is to the materiel as ten to one. They contended that attack fitted the psychology of the French soldier, whose spirit would overcome all obstacles, and so the war would start with an immediate French offensive through Alsace and Lorraine to the Rhine.

So they built their war plan on two assumptions about the Germans which proved altogether untrue. Because of the Staff's acute distrust in the combat efficiency of the reserves, Plan XVII excluded the reserve formations from the offensive army and thereby halved the number of divisions that could be used in the opening attack. (When these older men were used, they showed up splendidly, but then it was too late.) The French Staff also assumed that the German reserves were as undependable for shock action as the French, which led to the conclusion that the number of German combat divisions in the first campaign would be just about equal to those of the French and British. France's able military intelligence service had made a detailed report on the Schlieffen plan for invading through Belgium. But the General Staff chose to ignore it because it obviously was impossible for the German Army to have enough divisions to mount such a drive! Yet, as has been seen, the Germans used their reserve divisions from the outset.

That was why they broke through Belgium. This forced Joffre to disengage his battered armies and rush west to block the principal German drive. There the issue trembled in the balance until the Germans outran their communications and had to pull back from the Marne.

These upsets were in no sense the fault of the French soldiers; the reserves showed up splendidly at Verdun, the Champagne, and many other bitter fields. But basic flaws in the French Staff's battle plans almost lost the war in its first few weeks.

There were other costly blunders of the generals: Joffre's refusal to concern himself about Verdun until almost too late, Nivelle's insistence on feeding soldiers into the sausage grinder of a last offensive until they mutinied, Pétain's reluctance to move to Haig's aid after the German breakthrough of March 1918.

These compounded France's initial losses and she almost never recovered. Much of the change in her social life after 1918 was the result of the costly war.

France was plagued in the interwar years by defense-minded generals who planned to fight the next war as they had the positional war on the Western Front. Defense was the dream of military as well as civilian minds and many were the mistakes committed in its name. There was the Maginot Line, a fortress chain whose existence lulled the unwary into a sense of security but did not extend as far west as Sedan. Hitler's 1936 Rhineland coup stimulated French plans to carry it on to the Channel, but these were still paper plans in 1940, when the Fuehrer selected Sedan for the breakthrough which forced British retreat to Dunkerque and French surrender in three weeks.

The high command's attitude to the tactical implications of new weapons reflected a similar blindness. As a tank officer, De Gaulle worked out the first technically satisfactory projection of the use of armor in the future war of movement and insisted on its employment as an independent arm of service. The French Staff rebuffed his urgent recommendations that tanks be promoted from a troublesome auxiliary infantry weapon to an independent position. But Guderian, the great brain of Hitler's moving armor, eagerly applied and improved De Gaulle's ideas. The French General Staff carefully procured token quantities of new planes, antiaircraft artillery, rocket guns, and other equipment, but continued inhospitable to real modernization of the 1918 materiel. Officers found it did not pay to push reforms too hard.

Poor military planning hurt France in 1936 when Hitler violated the Versailles Treaty and sent his troops into the

Rhineland. As was suspected then, the Germans marched under orders to halt if they were opposed. But the French command was none too sure of the army's ability to mobilize quickly enough to expel the Nazi legions. These had dug in opposite the Maginot Line before the authorities made up their minds.

After the damage was done, France revamped her plan of mobilization, abandoned the traditional scheme of summoning by annual classes, but subdivided the reserves into various specialist categories, so that signallers, pilots, gunners, and tank men could be called when needed, a more flexible system. None the less, her General Staff feared to strike a blow during the eight months of the "phoney war."

The reckoning came in 1940. Once again it was proved that manpower alone does not assure national defense no matter how well its conscription system works. Unless it be coupled with a hard-thinking, tactically skilled, and strategically imaginative professional officer group, which knows the score in the game of war and is skilled in projecting the next step in that volatile art, the soldiers are likely to be led to the slaughter house and buried in heroes' graves.

The soldiers of France were not to blame for the army's inability to resist Hitler's blitzkrieg. As has been said, its conscription system had been fundamentally reorganized and recruits were being trained in the technologies required by modern war. Neither does disparity of numbers explain France's fall; German army records show that Hitler actually used fewer troops in the six-weeks' campaign than France and Britain!

Analysts of the fall of the Third Republic differ in their emphases among various factors. One stresses the sluggishness of France's war industries, which caused the army to be deficient in late-model planes, tanks, and antiaircraft artillery; another blames the paralyzing class conflicts of the thirties for the collapse of faith in the nation's survival; a third blames power-hungry politicians of Laval's sort for putting France on

the auction block. But they agree that poor military leadership was a principal cause.

A nation today must reflect its technological pattern in the equipment and supply of its military forces or it has lost the war before it starts. If its command and staff fail to force these changes, the country is in danger whatever the number on the rolls. *Masses of men do not comprise an army.* Masses equipped with obsolete weapons make up casualty lists.

THE OFFICER CORPS AS A CAREER

It is of the utmost importance that the professional officer cadre of the peacetime regular army shall be made up of men of intelligence and imagination and with the capacity for leadership. The efficient employment of a nation's power in war cannot be assured unless the military services are able in time of peace continually to recruit a fair share of the developing national leadership. Otherwise Gamelins and general staffs may misemploy the military manhood and insure defeat.

Officers with talent, skill, and judgment are needed at all levels of the military pyramid. Imagination as well as balanced judgment are indispensable in the formation of the professional army's top command. It is needed for the development of well-trained tactical units. It would be almost imperative to insure the proper instruction of the annual classes of conscripts.

Trained manpower for war being the announced objective of peacetime conscription, it is plain that the value of the program depends on the way the youths are handled during their year in training camp. The key to success, therefore, is to provide competent officers to instruct them—and to make the instruction stick. Whatever the merits of outdoor exercise, better diet, discipline, and other suppositive benefits tangent to the school of the soldier, these are only side issues to the central task of training youths for war. It is of critical importance that the officers, noncommissioned officers, and others charged with their instruction do their jobs well.

Universal military training would confront the country with

a problem we have never before had to solve in time of peace, that of providing tens of thousands of officers of high quality to train nearly a million men a year. Americans have a justified pride in the way we developed troop officers in World War II, but national need joined with personal ambition in stimulating young men of talent and ability to take the lead. Peace lessens the urgency of the spirit of self-sacrifice for the general welfare, and other incentives must be offered such young men if they are to be attracted to military careers.

The War Department seems well aware of the *quantitative* aspect of the instructional problem; according to plans made by the training section of the General Staff and published November 26, 1945, a total of 112,000 officers will be required to handle the instruction and administration of the training camps "when and if." It was thought that this number would be required to handle the annual class of 960,000 youths anticipated under the administration bill.

This means that there would be an average of one instructor to eight conscripts, a figure not greatly out of line with the usual college ratio of teachers and students. The figure doubtless also embraces administrative, housekeeping, and caretaking staffs, but undoubtedly the number of officer-instructors was fixed in the light of the United States Army's training experience from 1940-45.

The *quality* of the officer-instructor would depend, of course, on the inducements the government would hold out to young men of imagination, judgment, and leadership to make the peacetime army their life career. If we are to judge in the light of our national experience between major wars, the prospect is none too bright.

The military history of the United States, as has been pointed out by General Emory Upton and others, shows that in time of peace we have never deliberately undertaken to attract such young men to our professional officer corps. The methods of appointment to West Point and Annapolis have emphasized geography rather than talents; low pay and slow promotion have discouraged many who joined the services.

The formula of satisfactions which induces a man to

espouse a particular profession—law, medicine, engineering, business, government, social service, and others—eludes precise definition. But it includes income and some property, power, prestige and deference, and a sense of security. The United States government has been slow to offer the necessary rewards and satisfactions to young men of college age to induce the best among them to choose military service as their life profession.

This is not a good state of affairs, as the sag of officer morale after World War I made abundantly clear. Its recurrence now would be particularly unfortunate because victory has left this nation with peacetime military problems demanding minds and judgments of a high order.

Never before have our military services required such specialized knowledge of science and technology, as the employment of electronics, meteorology, and aeronautics have testified. Never before has the direction of military operations required such coordination among theaters of action and arms of service. The art of war was rapidly changing under heat and pressure before the atomic bombing. Since then the staffs have needed to rethink all of the pre-Hiroshima techniques for military action. If ever there be a time when men of comprehensive and substantial understanding will be needed in our armed services, it will be during the next twenty years.

Should peacetime conscription be added to the other problems now confronting our military bureaucracy, it would be more important than ever to induct imaginative minds and sound judgments into the officers' corps. This would diminish the risk that the annual classes would be trained to fight the next war with yesterday's weapons and tactics, rather than tomorrow's. Recent blunders on atomic bomb policy show how necessary it is to leaven the lump of the military mind. In time of peace it would pay us to find the way to offer able young men attractive careers in uniform.

Soviet Russia tackled a somewhat similar problem of officer training about twenty years ago. Her civil wars had ended and Lenin urged the people to "guard the Red Army and war production as you would guard the apple of your eye."

Officers' training was at the head of the list of new projects because Lenin and Stalin were determined to build a better military leadership.

They revived the excellent officer schools of the Romanoffs and founded others for subalterns, military technicians, and arms of service. In 1936 she had twenty-seven regular officers' schools as large as West Point or Annapolis and almost as many more service schools for noncommissioned officers and technicians. Their professional training was thorough and demanding, and in addition they were expected to have a common life with their men and share privations as well as rewards.

The U.S.S.R. also found it desirable to train a substantial portion of the men in each annual class in science, technology, and production skills rather than merely in military knowledge. In 1927 she began to send almost half of the annual class to provincial militia service of six months, rather than three years in the National Red Army; the remainder of the time was spent in school, laboratory, or factory. Stalin said that national defense rested both on a skillfully selected and well-schooled officer corps and on the dedication to war production of a substantial and carefully safeguarded portion of her industry. The distribution of effectives evinced his interest in both.

The Soviet Union had excellent results from its efforts to develop a keen interest in national defense among her civilian population through organizations with millions of members who earned badges for sharpshooting, aviation training, chemical skills, and other combat-useful techniques and skills. Russia's capacity to resist Hitler's 1941 attack stemmed from her possession of these multiple foundations for military power.

BETTER WEAPONS AND MORE SUPPLIES

Third among the factors which must be present for efficient national defense is the adequate provision of weapons and supplies for the fighting forces. Modern war is technological,

reflecting the characteristic of the age. The bravery, devotion to duty, and ability to take punishment of our military services would not have been enough unless their armaments had reflected the most diverse and profuse state of the arts in history. Our forces had to become master craftsmen employing our increasingly complex technology. The proliferation of new weapons—even other than the atomic bomb—which were about to be put into service at VJ Day suggests that many other major changes in the tools and tactics of war lie ahead.

It is essential, therefore, that new weapons continue to be made available to our forces as they are invented or improved. This cannot be done merely by blueprints or working models. France had better tanks than Hitler in 1940 but no manufacturing capacity to produce them. It is necessary to devote an appropriate fraction of the nation's industrial capacity to the manufacture of enough of the new items for the training and equipment of our peacetime forces. It is equally vital that sufficient additional producing capacity be available immediately in the event of need. This might require some plant capacity to be maintained in a stand-by condition, but national policy might well support such idle plants. The stand-by plants Russia built in the Urals and Siberia in the thirties paid national dividends in re-equipping the Red Army after the munitions capacity of White Russia and the Ukraine had been lost. But the United States came close to disaster through the failure to follow this policy during the interwar years.

We need to take these steps for our direct national self-interest. We also need to take them in order to discharge our obligations as a member of the United Nations Organization of whose Security Council we are a permanent member. Failure to do so would be a double betrayal of responsibility.

Many Americans do not realize how bare was the nation's cupboard of war materiel in the middle thirties, even though the Axis powers had already lit the fuse for World War II. Despite their aggressions in Manchuria, Ethiopia, and Central

Europe, the American people were swayed by propaganda about "the Merchants of Death," and charges of warmongering were brought against the companies which produced munitions for the United States and our Allies in World War I. The result was to have been expected: the producing companies abandoned their munitions plants in an effort to lessen the odium in which they were held.

For example, trinitrotoluol, TNT, is the principal propellant for artillery shell, and several American companies manufactured it for the government during World War I. But so vigorous were the attacks upon them in the interwar years that all but one quit making it, converted their plants to commercial powder, or abandoned them. Du Pont kept one plant with an extreme capacity of 1,000 tons a year. After Munich we worked day and night to build the world's biggest powder plant. But had Japan attacked in 1940, after the small store of ammunition had been exhausted, we would have had to wait for the completion of the plant at Charleston, Indiana, for the powder to defend ourselves.

Yet in the last months of the war, a single flight of American bombers dropped 3,000 tons of TNT in a night. This is a needed reminder that masses of manpower are marked for slaughter unless the missiles are there for their use.

LET US USE OUR SCIENTISTS MORE

The fourth factor that must be present if the plan for national defense is to work is the continuous commitment of an adequate number of our scientists and technicians to the development of new or improved weapons and defenses. America lagged badly in this field also in the interwar years, and our belated efforts to catch up with Germany, Russia, and Britain did not begin to pay real dividends until we had been in the shooting war almost two years.

Our scientists' efforts in the thirties to develop radar were full of frustration because of the blindness of the military bureaucracy and the unwillingness of the government to commit enough money or facilities to the work. Only after war

was under way did the Massachusetts Institute of Technology get the green light to solve the riddle and perfect this extraordinary information device. At the end of the war the margin between our technics and those of the enemy were so slight that it was almost a matter of chance and accident which would have the buzz bomb first, which could blind the other's radar, which could send planes across the sea by radio control. Although our luck held out, it is plain that we must learn to sustain research and experiment in time of peace, nourish our laboratories, and reward our scientists, so that next time our fate will not depend upon last-minute chance.

The dedication of the physical sciences to unlocking the atom paid handsome dividends when a great nation backed it with full strength. We must maintain this unrelenting pressure for invention and discovery, so that the unknowns will yield their secrets for the common defense and the general welfare of America and the world. Without it conscription is a broken reed.

WE HAVE TIME TO STUDY THE SITUATION

We have examined the essential elements of the postwar military policy of the United States. The starting point is our situation in the world at the end of war. Russia, Britain, and the United States with other allies have won total victory over Germany and Japan.

The victorious powers are turning to the tasks of reconstruction. All except the United States have suffered physical devastations whose repair will absorb the national endeavor for countless years. Cities must be rebuilt, railroads restored, factories renewed, homes rebuilt, farms restocked. There is no prospect of a major war until the nations' wounds have healed.

This means that no present danger of war confronts the United States. There is no urgency upon us to adopt any particular military policy in haste. We have time to study the situation and to determine in the light of reason what are the best courses for the country to take. It is a great gain

that deliberative judgment can be employed in our decision on national security problems.

Careful consideration is essential, among other reasons, because we do not yet know the nature of the military problem that must be solved to safeguard our national security. We do know what the problem was yesterday, because we learned during World War II how to solve it. Yesterday's problem was to translate the human and natural resources, the scientific knowledge and technological skills of America into military action over the face of the globe. We started with the concept of a mass army. We emerged with the fact of the collaborative action of an immense variety of military specialists reflecting and applying their particular skills in combat teamwork. Our combat operations mirrored the state of the arts of the nation.

At the end of the war, however, the atomic bomb introduced new unknowns and variables into the equation of forces which determine the outcome of military action. This means in all likelihood a far more fundamental modification of war than occurred in the final stages of World War I when tanks first appeared on the Western Front and the war of movement was reborn. By the time of the attack on Poland, the positional war of 1914-18 was no more and the blitzkrieg reigned supreme. Tomorrow's war with atomic bombs and radio-directed rocket planes will have even greater impact on the logistics and tactics of 1944-45.

Manpower is only one of the requirements for national defense and it is folly to change the social structure of the country to provide it unless the equally indispensable tools for its efficient employment are also provided.

These are (1) a really intelligent, efficient military command and staff; (2) an officer corps of imaginative and intelligent men who are awake to the changes in warfare and are able to train and lead the troops; (3) the provision of modern weapons and the assurance of their continued development and production in case of emergency; and (4) the continued scientific and technological research in new techniques of war.

The absence of any of these four essential factors would spike the gun of national defense. Peacetime conscription would be justified only if the other essentials have been provided. Without them it would be the form of national security without the substance and could fail when put to test.

What assurance is there that these will be forthcoming? In the light of our military history, they need not be expected unless the people of the United States realize how indispensable they are, and insist that they be provided.

The best way to assure this is to establish a commission of eminent Americans to make a disinterested study of the whole postwar military problem of the United States. President James B. Conant, of Harvard University, himself a distinguished chemist who participated in the development of the atomic bomb, has summed up the situation as to peacetime conscription. In a letter to the author, dated September 6, 1945, he declares:

What is needed at this moment is a distinguished commission of laymen to study the whole problem of national defense in all its ramifications. This Commission should hear witnesses from the Army, Navy, scientists, and civilians of all sorts.

On the basis of their report, which should give the over-all strategy, subsequent planning could be done as to how to find the men and materials to complement the basic policy. Until such over-all strategy is defined in modern terms, I think most of the discussion going on today is a pure waste of time.

Physical and Health Education for America

By C. H. McCLOY

THE REJECTION of more than nine million men—approximately 43 percent of those examined—as physically unfit for military service in World War II brings to a crisis the whole problem of our national health and the best means to improve it. Many people have exhibited a definite interest in the proposal for a year of universal military training because they believe it will aid materially in improving the physical health of our population. Let us inquire into the extent to which a year of military training for young men will solve this problem on a national basis.

In order to form a fair and intelligent opinion on the subject, it is obviously first necessary to inquire into the nature and extent of physical deficiencies in our population, and to consider whether the proposed plan would improve the situation as a whole. It cannot be denied that a year of regular physical exercise, outdoor life, good food, and medical and dental care would improve the physical condition of most of those who experience it. This would be but a very small proportion of the national population. Out of a population of more than 140,000,000 only about 900,000 young men annually would reap any benefit from the system of military training planned. The health of women, children, 4F's, the middle-aged, and the elderly, is ignored. Are these 139,000,000 people to be left out of national planning for physical fitness?

The most startling aspect of the draft statistics that may well cause us to take stock of our physical and health educational procedures is the rapid increase in physical degeneration. While only 28 percent of the eighteen-year-old group was rejected by the armed services, 37 percent of the twenty-five-year-old group was rejected, 52 percent of the thirty-

five-year-old group, and 66 percent of the forty-five-year-old volunteers. The increase is due partly to the fact that the longer people have lived, the more they have been exposed to infections, accidents, and the effects of poor hygiene, hence the more opportunity they have had to acquire defects. In Americans generally the tolerance for strenuous activity declines far too rapidly with the advance in age. In one study¹ from a base of 100 percent at seventeen years of age, the decline is stated as follows:

<i>Age group</i>	<i>Percentage of decline</i>
18-21	15
22-25	32
26-29	45
30-33	56
34-37	64
38-46	70

Such declines are unnecessary for the most part; men of middle age who "stay in condition" lose very little in their tolerance for exercise.

Another study, one made of a branch of the armed services, indicates that, as compared with the level at eighteen years of age, the performance of the men declines approximately 6 percent for each added five years of age up to at least fifty years of age. This decline took place *even after the men had had eight weeks of training*. It was approximately the same as the figure given above before training.

These findings concerning the physical condition of adults indicate that as a nation we have sadly neglected the health and stamina of our people. This neglect will have to be laid at the door of educational administrators and of the medical profession. They have neither "sold" physical and mental health to the adults of our country nor made adequate care generally available.

¹ Craig Taylor, "A Maximal Pack Test of Exercise Tolerance," *Research Quarterly* of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, December 1944.

WHAT ARE THE MAJOR PROBLEMS?

In addition to poor heredity and active disease, the most common factors which leave severe marks upon health and vitality are malnutrition, lack of muscular activity, and poor mental condition.

The physical condition of the American people will not respond rapidly to any simple formula. It is the product of both heredity and environment. Most hereditary defects are irremediable. While many cases of diseased eyes could be cured or improved by early medical attention, farsightedness, nearsightedness, and extremes of astigmatism will be present regardless of medical service, health instruction, or physical activity programs. Hereditary tendencies toward deafness, high blood pressure, and early heart or kidney diseases are also difficult to prevent or remedy. On the other hand, many of the heart and kidney conditions that follow certain infectious diseases could probably be prevented if adequate treatment were given in time.

It is estimated that about 60 percent of the hearing defects which caused rejections for the armed forces might have been prevented if treatment had been given in early years. Only about 1 percent of the draft rejections for under- and overweight in the eighteen-year-old group could have been removed by proper feeding; nutritional deficiencies had caused permanent damage long before the Army call. Hernias, hemorrhoids, and some other disorders amenable to surgery could readily have been repaired in their early stages. There is little excuse in our civilization for the draft rejections because of teeth defects, nor may we be proud of the fact that syphilis kills more people in the United States a year than the total number of American killed in the same length of time in the First World War.

A careful study of rejection statistics indicates that probably 25 percent of the rejections could have been prevented by early medical and dental care; that is, at eighteen years of age, the rejections might have been brought down from 28 percent to 21 percent.

Authorities state that almost 50 percent of our people are improperly nourished to some degree, with 25 percent being definitely underweight. The cause of most of this malnutrition is economic shortcomings or ignorance, or both. Dental authorities estimate that 30 percent of our population have structural defects of the face and jaws due to nutritional deficiencies and that 40 to 50 percent of the malformation of the teeth and jaws is due to an early loss of permanent teeth, usually attributable to poor nutrition, coupled with a lack of dental care. Malnutrition is frequently the cause of structural defects of the feet, the reason for many military rejections. Similar bony defects of the skeleton, such as deformities of the pelvis, which make for difficulties in childbirth, also result from it.

Obviously, defects produced by malnutrition must be prevented, for once they exist, they cannot be wholly remedied. One year of proper living and adequate medical and dental treatment cannot undo eighteen years of neglect. If our people are to be sound, they must, among other things, be well nourished from conception to old age. This requirement is of absolutely front-rank importance.

Programs of exercise are usually thought of as only for physical conditioning. The purpose of exercise is much more than that. Adequate exercise during the early years of life is necessary for the proper development of vital organs. Animals and children properly exercised during their youth develop a more ample equipment of vital tissues surrounding the heart, lungs, liver, kidneys, spleen, and digestive organs, and their growth is more symmetrical and complete. There seems to be a close relationship between the stimulus of exercise during youth and what might be called the bank account of vitality. Therefore, any plans for physical education which neglect early youth are highly inadequate.

Physical exercise primarily for the purpose of physical conditioning involves two factors: (1) one must exercise to *get* into good condition, and (2) one must continue to exercise to *stay* in good condition. Good physical condition is almost

as easily lost as gained. One study in the armed forces showed that over a period of approximately nine months, a group which had improved progressively under early training until it was in excellent condition declined within six months after the discontinuance of the compulsory exercise program ("they were now officers and gentlemen, and knew enough to take care of themselves") until it was in poorer condition than when it had entered the Army fifteen months earlier. Obviously, therefore, a single year of conditioning, such as might be expected from a program of universal military service, would have little permanent effect on the youth of our country unless it were so planned as to "sell" effectively a subsequent maintenance program.

TEACHING AIDS NEEDED

Much more emphasis should be placed on the elementary school program of physical and health education than is the case at present. The teachers should be as well trained in this area as they are in arithmetic, reading, spelling, and the other standard subjects. Hence there should be adequate teacher training in the normal schools and teachers' colleges for elementary school physical and health education. At present most graduates of these institutions know almost nothing of the proper methods in this area.

There is a dearth of teaching aids for elementary and high school use. A first need is a manual to guide the teacher on *how* to cause health instruction to produce habits of healthful living. Then in addition to syllabi or outlines of *what* to teach, the following specific materials are urgently needed:

1. A comprehensive manual of *how* to teach skills. Now, for example, the teacher is told, at about the fourth or fifth grade, to teach softball, but there are no readily available source books that inform the teacher how to teach softball to the beginning learner.

2. "Readers" that describe in interesting, children's language the most common games and other physical activities, as well as inculcate health knowledge.

3. Illustrated textbooks at the high school and college level that would enable the student to learn many times faster than he learns today with our very incidental teaching in the gymnasium or on the athletic field, and, all too frequently, in the health instruction class, also.

Each activity taught should be adapted to the needs of the child *at the age for which it is selected* in order to give him the experiences needed to stimulate him to develop physically and educationally at an optimum pace. In general, in the elementary school the emphasis should be on the stimulation to organic growth, while in the secondary school the physical emphasis should be swung toward a toughening process. In addition to the contribution each activity selected makes to the immediate development, it should lead on to skills needed at higher levels. This recommendation calls for much research and experimentation of the problems of curriculum construction.

In view of the fact that many children leave school at about sixteen years of age, every effort should be made to prepare these children while they are still in high school to assume full responsibility for their health and exercise programs after they leave school. For example, they should be taught conditioning exercises adapted to home use and introduced to types of apparatus which can be used at home, such as rowing machines, skipping ropes, striking bags, barbells, and dumbbells. In addition to the usual tennis and golf, they should be taught games that can be played in small areas—in the back yard, in blocked-off streets, and even in a city apartment—such as badminton, aerial tennis, deck tennis, horseshoes, archery, and paddle tennis. Much of this preparation will be useful for the community program suggested hereafter.

In teaching the program, not only should there be emphasis on the physical skills, but also equal emphasis on those concomitant outcomes frequently referred to as "character education." This requires wise individual guidance, as well as the use of games and sports which are rich in the possibilities of social discipline. The value of this type of activity has led

some not-too-well-informed writers to advocate it for almost the sole content of the program. Many high schools and colleges teach only group sports and games. Brief reflection should show the tragic deficiency of such a program, for few communities have adequate facilities to accommodate 4 percent of the population between the school age and forty-five years.

At present, the greatest emphasis on physical training comes during the high school years and starts too late to lay the best foundation for the vitality of our people.

Since physical and health education should begin in infancy, it is essential that a start be made in educating the members of this child-bearing generation and of the future child-bearing generation who are now students in our schools. They need to learn what physical training and health guidance to give to their children.

THE HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAM

Adequate medical examinations beginning at infancy should be provided. By an adequate medical examination is not meant the usual one- to three-minute school examination, but one that takes not fewer than twenty minutes for each pupil. The examination should be given at least every three years, and there should be a 100 percent follow-up by responsible individuals. In the elementary school, especially in small communities, the follow-up may well be done by the classroom teachers. In the high school, unless it is a very small one, this follow-up may best be delegated to a school nurse or a community public health nurse. The administration of examinations and the carrying out of a follow-up program implies full cooperation with county medical and dental organizations and with local health departments.

Health instruction should be graphic and applicable to facts that are significant to the child and should be pointed toward action and habits. From the very beginning the classes in health instruction should teach the child to discriminate be-

tween the good and evil in the omnipresent "health" advertising to which he will be exposed for the rest of his life.

By the time he leaves the eighth grade, the child should have a good fundamental training in health knowledge and good health habits. He should be provided with the information that a good citizen needs in order to vote intelligently on health questions in his community, and he should be educated to accept responsibility for taking an active part in promoting the facilities for improving the health of his community.

In communities which have public recreational organizations for the after-school years, the school child should be introduced to this system before he graduates. He should be taken to visit all the recreational facilities of the community and should participate there often enough so that when his school days are over the habit of using these facilities will have been instilled.

Where feasible, the physical education, recreation, and health education of the community should be administered through a committee, with a chairman whose responsibility it is to see that these activities are carried on throughout the community and into the homes. In addition to the chairman (who should be a salaried employee with adequate assistance), the members should include the school supervisor of physical education, the community recreation director, and the head of the community or county board of health, or their representatives. If there is a supervisor of health education in the school system, he also should be on the committee, as should a representative of the park commission. School children should be organized by the community committee to promote the health and recreational programs much as the Office of Civilian Defense organized air raid wardens early in World War II. In addition to promoting effective physical activities programs, these children would receive training in leadership, and when their school days are over, they would be better prepared to take their places as adult community leaders.

While this program should start in the schools and with

the younger recreation groups, it is important that especial attention be given to programs for all adults—young, middle-aged, and aging—since this group constitutes a large percentage of the population and should be kept strong and vigorous.

NEED FOR INCREASED RESOURCES

The concept of health and physical education set forth above obviously must involve more than the local community. It must involve the resources of the nation (for the preparation of materials, for the financing of research) and the resources of the state (for financial assistance, for guidance by the state officers of health, recreation, and education, and for intercommunity integrative influences). Organized voluntary community effort should be buttressed by the national, regional, state, and local organizations for health, physical education, and recreation, and by the many social agencies whose efforts fall into these patterns, as well as city-wide agencies, schools, park boards, and boards of health.

To achieve such a program is not easy. While we are making progress in physical and health education, as well as in spreading community-wide recreation movements, this progress is at a snail's pace and has to fight against organized selfishness and ignorance for every inch of the way. This criticism is not made by way of reproach, but it does imply that physical and health education authorities have not as yet put forth really effective educational efforts. To hasten the progress would necessitate vast expenditures of public money. Here would be encountered active opposition on the part of the taxpayers who are either unconsciously ignorant of or deliberately blind to the importance of these measures and who organize to prevent such increase in the expenditures of public funds.

HOW MUCH WOULD UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING CONTRIBUTE TO PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION?

In the light of the foregoing discussion of the present condition of national health and what the total population needs

in the way of school and community programs to insure improvement on a national scale, we are ready now to consider the real question of this paper: How much would universal military training contribute to physical and health education?

Considered on a national scale and compared with the program for the *total* population suggested in earlier sections, it would seem that the results accomplished for physical welfare by a year of military training would be insignificant indeed. Briefly, however, a year of universal military training, if wisely planned and carried out, could produce the following results, most of which at present are not cared for adequately by civilian agencies:

1. It could provide excellent medical and dental examination and care for one year to every young male citizen undergoing the training. (Males up to eighteen years of age, males unfit for military service—at present about 28 percent of the eighteen-year-old group, males beyond the age of twenty-two, and all females would unfortunately be neglected.) This service might result in some degree in educating trainees to seek as civilians competent medical service and care. To what degree this objective would be accomplished is, however, problematical. Unless the civilian medical profession as a whole offers adequate medical service at prices that the poor can pay, this brief Army experience or education is not likely to carry far beyond the one year of training.

2. It could provide an excellent schooling in first aid and in personal hygiene. Instruction in the control of venereal disease would also be an asset to our society. Contrary to the opinion of many civilians who have not investigated the matter, the armed services on the whole do their best to discourage promiscuity. The writer has seen and heard such programs in both the Army and the Navy, and tremendous emphasis is placed upon prevention by abstention. The Army and Navy, however, unlike many theorists on moral education, realize that in spite of persuasion, education, and warning, a certain percentage of young men, whether in military life or as civilians, will take chances. Therefore, they make avail-

able methods for the prevention of disease, and both at home and in most foreign theaters of war, this procedure has been much more effective than have educational procedures (or the lack of them) in civilian life.

3. All of the men in military training would have one year of excellent feeding. It is a common experience for whole units to gain an average of ten to fifteen pounds per person in the first two or three months in the service, largely because of increased exercise and proper diet. Of course, for this gain to endure, the women of our country, who usually choose and prepare the food, need to be taught how to prepare an adequate diet from such materials as are available. At present, only about 30 percent of high school girls receive as many as ten lessons on diet and food preparation.

The above benefits (to the relatively small group involved) could be realized if projected plans are carried out. The phrase "if carried out" must be emphasized, however, for in this war the average physical training of the armed forces has not been of high standard. Certain units, such as the Army and Navy air forces during their training periods and the Navy during its recruit training of four to twelve weeks, have exhibited a high standard of physical conditioning. There was, however, no effective implementation for following up this training: such a program is almost entirely lacking in the Navy aboard ship and in the air forces after flight training, and was of rather low standard for the ground crews of the air forces. The directive concerning the physical training of the Army ground forces was, in general, more honored in theory than in practice. Nevertheless, the year of training should result in the development of physical stamina and of certain valuable qualities related to character, such as aggressiveness and a feeling of confidence. The tragedy is—and this would not be the fault of the armed services—that most of the beneficial results of this fine physical conditioning would be lost within the next year.

Although this paper is concerned primarily with physical health, it might not be amiss to mention briefly the claims for

character education. The marvelous transformations in character qualities claimed by many proponents to result from military training would seem to be wishful thinking. There is little or no evidence to show that those men who have undergone military training are any better disciplined out of the services or any more free from race and social prejudices than are those men who have not had that training. Nor are they known to be better leaders or better teamworkers in the business or professional world after they return to civilian life. The facts seem to be that such training is usually specifically restricted to the military situation and has almost no carry-over value to civilian life. It is possible, however, to cultivate such qualities and to cause them to carry over, but this is a complicated educational process which has not been taught to one military officer in five hundred. Furthermore, military life is of necessity the antithesis of democracy. Hence, such claims must be subjected to real proof before being taken seriously.

Many of the above-mentioned gains could result from a year of universal military training, but unfortunately *these gains would probably be confined to one year of life of but three-quarters of the boys, and that year comes too late in life for the gains to be effective.*

THE CASE FOR THE SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITY RECREATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

What are some of the proposed alternatives so far as physical and health education are concerned? These alternatives are largely confined to: Educate in the schools those of school age, and educate through community recreational and adult education agencies those of after-school age. Judged by present performance, this proposal gives little promise of immediate significant achievement.

Few school systems have as yet even attempted to face the problem of health education realistically. In most of the states it is possible to graduate from high school with practically no useful knowledge of the principles and methods of

healthful living, either personal or public, and with no firmly-fixed health habits. The examples set by the teachers are seldom convincing. To mention only a few factors that relate to healthful living, few high school graduates know how to order meals that are adequate and balanced and still within the range of their pocketbooks. Few are really convinced of the harmfulness of alcohol and tobacco or of other common forms of self-drugging. Few know how to exercise at home or how to relax properly.

There are few schools which administer adequate medical examinations. Those which do almost never have an adequate follow-up program. A few years ago one of our largest cities averaged only 2 percent in correction of defects found. Few do better than 10 percent. As a result of this unintelligent neglect, most of these uncorrected defects in the male population reached the examiners for the armed services. In the well-run community there should be no correctible defects in our children that are not corrected.

In only a very small proportion of our elementary schools is there any program of physical education—probably not more than 10 percent of the schools devote adequate time to it or make any attempt to provide adequate facilities. Yet this is the period of formative growth when the stimulus of exercise to the developing organism is most important, and it is the period in which the basic skills for physical and recreational performance are most easily learned. There are not even adequate textbooks for physical education in the elementary field.

Secondary school and college programs have been somewhat better than the elementary program, but this is to damn them with faint praise. The greatest deficiency is the lack of time. In the period of the national emergency just passed, when 75 percent of all high school boys could expect to be called up for service in the armed forces, *half of the high schools in the United States had no physical education at all in the junior and senior years!* Fewer than a third have health instruction. Few high schools and colleges provide more than

two or three twenty-five to thirty-five minute periods a week of exercise.

Not only are the schools doing little to develop good physical condition in their youth and even less to teach them how to stay fit after they leave school, but also the institutions devoted to community recreations have done little, if any, better than the schools. As a result, our middle- and old-age groups approach the condition of functional senility far too rapidly, and few communities even know that anything *can* be done to stop this degeneration.

Health is listed first among the classic educational objectives—and is usually last in practice. Inadequate supervision of the physical education programs has been partly responsible for the poor results. The educational administrator on the other hand has usually not been trained to know what he should look for. Boards of education do not provide space, time, or facilities to do a good job. The public has not been sold on public recreation facilities in adequate amounts. Without an ample local budget, all of these projects languish. But, be the reasons what they may, it would seem an unescapable fact that by measurement of present performance, the medical profession, the schools, and public recreational organizations show little promise of doing competent jobs in the fields of physical or health education. The present lag for the country as a whole is at least twenty-five years behind the best of our knowledge.

WHO CAN DO THE JOB BEST?

What is the answer? The schools have talked much but done little. Obviously a year of military service between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two could at best provide only a partial and inadequate remedy, for it would come twelve to eighteen years too late. The armed services have not done an outstanding job in health education or in physical training during this war. They might do much better in the year of universal military training, but results and paper plans are not synonymous. However, if universal military service were

established, the armed services would have a magnificent opportunity to influence almost every young male citizen if they try to rehabilitate the present 4F's as well as to train the others and to attempt to overcome the neglect of the schools and communities.

The schools, on the whole, are trusted by the people. If they can implement physical and health education programs, they can do the job for all citizens. Our democratic way has all too frequently been to make progress slowly—almost as coral grows, by a sort of progressive accretion. But the beauty of the democratic process is that this growth process responds vigorously to leadership with vision and to leaders who talk sensibly, lucidly, patiently, and persistently to the people. The writer feels that the time is ripe for the leaders in education, first, to investigate the needs in physical and health education as thoroughly as they have investigated the needs for the basic elementary school educational subjects; and second, to be especially vigorous in presenting the facts to our country's education administrators and to the lay public until the facts are widely known. At the same time, the leaders in the fields of physical and health education should provide the technical leadership to implement such a program when it gets under way. For only through the schools and the community recreation agencies can *all* the people be reached. The military training would be at best an acre's irrigation on a national educational desert.

The national government can help best by allocating funds to the states and local communities to provide skilled leadership. While the cost must eventually be paid from taxes imposed on the local citizenry, such federal programs tend to insure that the citizens of our poorer states are given an opportunity as adequate as those of more prosperous and progressive states—and at once.

To the writer the choice is clear. We must awaken the public, political, and private conscience. We must distribute the facts that will impress the public with the importance of this program. It is the job of the educators to implant this

idea of importance in the minds of a million young people a year for in another few years these young minds will be "the public," and an enlightened public would carry out an enlightened program.

All educators should be deeply concerned that as our physical and health education is strengthened it should be the best possible educational product, and not a bastard offspring of organized ignorance and war hysteria. The leaders of general education and of physical and health education should confer frequently and at length, so that educators dominating America's educational thinking would have a full understanding of the problem to the end that there might be a united surge forward for the consolidation of our gains while the war experience is still fresh in our minds and in our hearts. The real goal is a citizenry whose physical and emotional well-being has been raised to a level in keeping with the democratic heritage and the ideals of our country.

Education among American Prisoners of War

By DAVID R. PORTER

FEW PEOPLE REALIZE how widespread and how significant has become the educational work among our men in the armed forces. The United States Armed Forces Institute has reported that more than a million men have been enrolled in the courses of study which it has made available. Eleven branches of USAFI scattered from Saipan and Burma to the headquarters in the European theater have made available to our men a score of million textbooks and a service of guidance, testing, and recording of educational experience. In addition, a vast amount of educational activity has gone forward as men have prepared themselves for military duties of all grades, and such activity, whether classified as formal or informal education, is already proving to be of real merit as men return to resume their interrupted studies in school and college. When the complete story is told, this military chapter in the nation's educational history will be a remarkable one, both in encouragement and in guidance for the future.

The purpose of this article is to give a brief report of the activities of educational significance among the 92,956 Americans who found themselves held by the enemy as prisoners of war, both in Germany and in the Far East. Only the most meager reference will be made here to the prisoners of other nationalities and races. It is estimated that there were altogether no less than sixteen million of these men interned for the duration of World War II in upwards of thirty nations in every corner of the world. It should be realized, however, that the work of education was possible among our own men and our interned Allies only because provision was made for a measure, at least, of reciprocal service to enemy prisoners held by the Allies.

Most of the favorable reports concern men in the prison camps of Germany. For the 22,837 unfortunate Americans

held by the Japanese in prison camps scattered throughout the Far East, the story is soon told. There was only such educational activity as the men themselves could initiate and sustain within the camps. From the meager reports so far received, we know that some of these camps carried forward activities of considerable educational significance in spite of untold difficulties and even positive discouragement from their captors. The Japanese government was represented at the 1929 Geneva Convention which established international standards for considerate treatment of prisoners of war. However, this Convention was never ratified by the Japanese government, although early in the war it announced that the provisions of the Convention would be observed. Information already made public shows that they have not lived up to this announced policy. We may assume that fuller information later will show that this was true in the fields of education, religion, and general morale-building as well as in other ways. However, on different relief ships, more than 50,000 books were sent to the Far East by War Prisoners Aid of the World's Committee of the YMCA. Information has reached us from a special war prisoners aid committee in the Far East of which the Swedish minister was chairman, confirmed by the International Red Cross through their Geneva headquarters, that some of the camps, at least, received consignments of these books. The books selected were both for recreational reading and for study, arranged in unit libraries of 1,500 titles. A shipment sent in the summer of 1944 included, among many other textbooks and books for serious reading, a considerable number of USAFI textbooks. Besides this, the Far Eastern committee of War Prisoners Aid purchased and distributed 8,800 books in English which were discovered in Japan. The National Catholic Welfare Conference also shipped some books.

The following statement by Captain C. Jay Nielsen, a navigator in the Doolittle mission to Tokyo in 1942, is a revelation of the learning process going forward even in prison camps where the relief shipments did not penetrate:

Much stress has been laid on the physical sufferings. The mental torture was also severe, and our efforts to resist it may be of service to those interested in information-education work. At least, we made a hard effort to live through an almost absolute mental vacuum and come out with undamaged minds. . . . During this total blackout (solitary cells) Hite did some heavy, consecutive thinking about model farms, his strongest civilian interest. De Shazer whispered prayers and poems. I designed myself a home.

Later from a newly built prison at Nanking. . . . We were too weak to take much physical exercise, but our minds had kept grinding along. They seemed to grow more active, more inquisitive as our bodies weakened. But this had been dangerous activity, for it had so little new to feed upon until we could meet. Then luck sent us a treasure—a pencil stub found in a trash-heap. Using this gem, we summarized on toilet paper (also almost priceless) all the war news we could jointly remember, and everything else we could learn or deduce about the war. Written down, we found the news much easier to analyze. We also prepared a crude situation map of the Pacific area, pooling our knowledge of geography. . . .

Sgt. De Shazer had memorized a long poem, "The Pleasures of Hope," from a typewritten copy lent him briefly by a Japanese. We all picked up parts of it. It was appropriate stuff, and gave us something to mull over hopefully in the long hours of inaction. That was what we most needed—mental activity and hope. We grabbed at any new topic, any shred of memory or dream, to keep our mental cogs moving under control. . . . If we had been granted a longer period, Hite would have taught us scientific agriculture, De Shazer literature, and I would have made the two into keen architects. We were all greedy to learn, not for possible future gain, but to keep our minds employed.¹

Later ("after thirty-three months") these men were given three religious books by the commandant. "We studied every line, word and punctuation mark with a concentration that would have surprised the authors." Thus, our men interned in the Far East demonstrated ingenuity in using even their difficulties for steppingstones. Who shall say that they were not having valid educational experience!

¹ See *Information and Education Digest*, II (October 1945).

The story about the American prisoners of war held in Germany is far different and more encouraging. It will be seen that they were treated with more consideration than perhaps any others, notably more than the Poles and the Russians. We may not appreciate either the situation which our men there faced or evaluate appropriately the educational activities which went forward unless we first analyze briefly the wholly unprecedented and wholly unexpected situation into which these men were introduced.

A prison of war camp is *community* at its simplest and most rudimentary. One goes back to the elemental conditions of the cave men to find its like. Into it modern men were usually initiated by nerve-shattering and tragic battle experience. Then followed hours if not days of uncertainty regarding life itself before the men were herded into a barbed wire enclosure with thousands of other strangers. If an old factory building or barracks was available for shelter, they counted themselves lucky. Aside from such a shelter there were none of the institutions of normal community life—no press, library, school, church, home, theater, radio, museum, cinema, or government, except the all too efficient police. Neither were there any of the people who constitute community—no family, child, or woman. Such a prison camp has well been called a social desert. No community existed unless by the initiative of the prisoners, limited by the will of the detaining power.

The will of the detaining power, however, is itself limited by the degree to which that power lives up to international agreement. In 1929 forty-seven nations established the "Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War." Our men in Germany generally found that this Convention was observed, at least in the letter of the law.

The provisions of this international agreement may be regarded as especially important because they deal with one of the few areas in which international law has been recognized and upheld. It is significant that this is so in the areas in which education has been carried forward across international lines even during the great military struggle. Among the

provisions of this Convention which bear upon the maintenance of educational activities are the following:

Article 16. Prisoners of war shall enjoy complete liberty in the exercise of their religion, including attendance at the services of their faith. . . .

Article 17. . . . belligerents shall encourage intellectual diversions and sports organized by the prisoners.

Article 39. Prisoners of war shall be allowed to receive shipments of books. . . .

Article 78. Relief societies for prisoners of war . . . shall receive from the belligerents . . . every facility for the efficient performance of their humane task.

It is under this last article that neutral visitors from the International Red Cross and the World's Committee of the YMCA (War Prisoners Aid) actually were allowed to visit the prison camps. By consultation these two organizations arrived at a general division of labor. The International Red Cross was expected to give a measure of general supervision, see that the Convention was observed, help maintain correspondence between prisoners and their homes, and distribute food parcels packed by the national Red Cross. The War Prisoners Aid of the YMCA concerned itself with services in the field of morale, that is, athletics and games, music, religion, and education. Vast stores of books as well as other supplies were built up in Geneva, Switzerland. From Geneva supplies were sent directly to the prison camps according to the requests sent in by the prisoners or the evidence of need shown to the representatives who visited the camps. The relief supplies—books, religious articles, musical and athletic equipment sent by the YMCA, as well as food parcels delivered by the International Red Cross—were generally transported to the camps without hindrance though delays were not infrequent. The travel facilities were in hopeless state throughout Germany for the six weeks before VE Day and Allied prisoners captured at the Bulge subsequently received almost nothing from Switzerland.

The first Americans who dropped down out of the skies

onto German controlled territory were usually taken to the camps where British prisoners were already collected. Multitudes of other nationalities were by that time behind the barbed wire—Poles, Czechoslovaks, Russians, French, as well as both military and civilian internees from Norway, Holland, Belgium, Greece, and Yugoslavia. Two years before Pearl Harbor the Germans had already captured over one and a half million French prisoners of war. Our men usually found that among the British a considerable amount of social life had been created. This was notably true in the field of education. The weary and desperate months had taught the need for intellectual diversion and schools had been established in many of the camps. Frequently the Americans enrolled in educational classes already under way among the British. In some cases they proceeded to take examinations made available through the University of London on behalf of other educational institutions and chartered professional societies. The American POW's never felt wholly at home in the use of British textbooks and soon became conscious of their desire for American books and, if possible, for examinations adapted to the American schemes of accreditation.

With the arrival in the camps in Germany of increasing numbers of Americans in 1943 and 1944, most ingenious and interesting developments began to enrich the dreary barbed-wire communities. Now entire camps were established for the Americans. At first thought one might consider that only drab monotony lay ahead. Two great assets were, however, available—time and leadership. Time seemed at the start an insuperable problem, as monotonous days stretched out into months and years and every tomorrow looked like yesterday. One man has described how this stage of a common experience was for him transcended:

It struck him as strange that he should be amongst the few of his fellows left alive. So many of them had been more worthy than he could ever be of attaining the good things that life had to offer, of returning to their own again. Why should he remain? What did it all mean? He had endeavored to do his duty by his country and his

best as he knew it; he had seen men fall on his right and left, destruction all around him—but he had been spared. Undoubtedly, his prayer had been heard. For what purpose, he did not pretend to know, could not even guess; but the new conviction very definitely came to him that, inefficient as he might be, he was nevertheless indispensable to the Divine Need, had still a job to do, be it years ahead of him, for which he alone was suited. Meantime, he must forget himself and devote the energy that had been entrusted to him to making the lives of others in some way more enjoyable, more happy, more aware of the Real, the True, indeed the love of God. This was to be the basis of life for him in future.

Though many would express it in other language, some such experience is frequently met with among the men from the prison camps. From such convictions there appeared one little-appreciated value of a citizen army, namely, leadership for creating communities. In these strange barbed wire prisons there were found cross sections of American community life. As increasing thousands found their way into these camps—while tens of thousands of Germans and Italians were being captured and shipped to Canada and the United States—trained community leaders were found to be included. Among them were doctors, lawyers, clergymen, social workers, teachers, and educational administrators.

One of the first expressions of interest from the prisoners of war was for books. At first there were none. Gradually a few books, casually selected as wartime conditions in Europe made inevitable, found their way to some of the camps. Simultaneously with the developing interest in study within the camps, a movement got under way outside the camps to provide educational materials. Starting where it left off in World War I, the World's Committee of the YMCA² had begun to send neutral visitors to the camps, providing them with certain supplies to be used by the men during their leisure time—materials for recreation, music, and religion. Formerly the books had been chiefly for recreational reading rather

² See Conrad Hoffman, *In the Prison Camps of Germany* (New York: Association Press, 1920).

than for study. During 1940 and 1941 requests began arriving at the Geneva headquarters, at first chiefly from the French and the British, asking for more serious publications. Little by little the responses to such requests grew until in 1942 a department of YMCA work was organized and called "Men of Science." Soon a project was developed which made available very large quantities of books to serious-minded prisoners on both sides. During 1944 over a million volumes in English were shipped to Geneva.

This development of "Men of Science" made possible for many men in the liberal professions projects of research and even of creative writing which had been interrupted by the call to military service. The requests were for books in every conceivable field. One typical day might produce requests for books on bread-baking, swine-raising, internal combustion engines, Bibles in Turkish, dental therapy, concrete construction, early Tuscan art, beer-brewing, the modern home, and the nature of proof in criminal law. Whatever the request, the attempt was immediately made to find an exactly appropriate volume. This task was begun first in Geneva where a cooperative group included, besides War Prisoners Aid, the Bureau of International Education, European Student Relief, and the International Red Cross. Many books were secured at first from London until the British stocks became very low. The New York headquarters and the center generously provided by the Library of Congress became hives of activity. A staff of a dozen and scores of volunteers were kept busy by this individual book service, involving location of the right title, securing it by gift or purchase, arranging for censors, and packaging and shipping. Space was hired on the ships of the American Red Cross; thence the supplies went by freight cars at Marseilles or Lisbon to their immediate destination in neutral Geneva. Large numbers of librarians, authors, publishers, officers of learned societies, and governmental bureaus at this stage generously donated thousands of books to answer the individual requests of thousands of Allied prisoners of war. Because of wartime barriers of the censors and

the military, mail, even that sent by air, was very slow in bringing the requests of these men, carried first in person to Geneva by the remarkable group of neutral camp visitors. It was often a trial of patience for men to await for months the arrival of some cherished volume. Fortunately nine-tenths of the books sent were passed by the German censor. During the last year and a half most of the individual requests of Americans which could not be supplied in Geneva were relayed by concise cables, thus speeding the process.

In practically every camp schools were organized, usually by the initiative of the men themselves. The neutral visitors of War Prisoners Aid offered the men supplies to be shipped from Geneva and from New York. Permission was secured for using certain rooms, such as the dining shed or an end of a long barracks, for classes, lectures, libraries, and occasional movies. Little by little shelves of reference books were provided, in some cases totaling several thousand volumes. In addition neutral Sweden and Switzerland were able to supply paper and notebooks (rare finds) as well as chalk, blackboards, pencils, erasers, rulers, drawing tablets, and other items. The men made their own tables and chairs or sat on the floor. Carefully scheduled classes met throughout the day as long as daylight lasted.

An airmen's camp, Stalag Luft III, had six compounds with upwards of a thousand men in each and it is estimated that here 25,000 books were in use. This figure includes those sent by next of kin as well as by War Prisoners Aid. The curriculum developed under Colonel C. G. Goodrich, Colonel Delmar T. Spivey, and their associates in this camp would compare favorably with that in many school systems which include college as well as school grades. The number enrolled in classes was well up in four figures. In one of the six compounds there were 600 men studying German. Other subjects being taught included French, Spanish, all levels of mathematics, various business subjects, harmony, cartooning, debating, and news writing.

Libraries were maintained both for quiet reading and for study. A classical orchestra and several jazz bands were in action under competent direction. A first-class choral group was formed. A small theater with good equipment made possible a lively department of dramatics with frequent plays all the way from current Broadway successes and Gilbert and Sullivan to Shakespeare. Debates and lectures alternated in the evening programs.

From one compound in this camp there was received in early 1944 this cable: "[Send] complete testing equipment materials necessary vocational guidance program 1200 adults." It was discovered that a former instructor in psychology at the University of Florida was available to help this project. With the aid of the United States Office of Education, the Psychological Corporation, and the *Infantry Journal*, several unit libraries were prepared and shipped, totaling 5,000 books and pamphlets on vocations and on vocational guidance, together with standard tests, for the use of these men and men of similar needs in other camps. This was perhaps the first postwar education project. We may be certain that the necessary prerequisite of interest was not lacking. Equipment for religious education and religious observances by the different faiths was also provided by War Prisoners Aid. Members of the art groups decorated the simple chapels and altars. Communion rails and seats were constructed from the boxes which had contained food packages and books. Participation in religious leadership (worship services, Bible classes) was often undertaken by laymen as there were not enough chaplains to fill the needs. In at least one compound of this camp a special faculty committee was assigned to give orientation instruction to the new men, a need specially felt in this camp, the airmen being usually very young and needing help to make the transition from active warfare to captivity.

When it was reported to the War Department that significant educational developments were taking place among the prisoners of war held by the enemy, it was heartily responsive to the suggestion of providing generous supplies and

equipment. It was recognized that all communications over wartime boundaries required the utilization of neutral civilian organization. The Information and Education Division was the first to take positive action in this matter, especially to make available the textbooks and other materials of the Armed Forces Institute. Athletic, musical, and theatrical materials were provided by the Special Services Division, as well as large numbers of the ingenious Armed Services Edition reprints of popular and standard fiction and nonfiction. Of USAFI textbooks approximately 100,000 copies of 220 different courses were sent forward to Geneva and the Far East. Even more valuable was the readiness of responsible officers to make USAFI policies flexible enough to meet the unprecedented conditions, involving as it did communications across half the world in order to reach large numbers of men located within enemy territory. A special branch of USAFI was set up in Geneva to facilitate study, counseling, and testing. Prompt cooperation was assured from the American Council on Education, the Bureau of International Education, and the Swiss Department of Education. Unfortunately the German censor found the USAFI catalogue and other USAFI materials unacceptable and this caused delays for months in using their textbooks. Many thousands of the same textbooks in other editions had been purchased previously, however, and sent to Geneva, the representatives of War Prisoners Aid having been generously given access to the list of nominated volumes months before the USAFI editions were available. In many cases textbooks were written within the camps or courses were taught by qualified teachers without the use of printed textbooks.

Records of sound academic achievement were kept both at Geneva and in the camps. Nothing sustained the morale of these needy men more than the expectation that their studies would be recognized and accredited when they returned home. Unfortunately the last weeks in Germany before VE Day were so confused and hectic that most of these records were scattered or destroyed. In at least two cases these valuable

records were secretly buried before the confusions which accompanied liberation. Efforts are on foot to retrieve them.

It is obvious that the entire story about educational work among the American prisoners of war cannot be written yet. The scattered records must be gathered from many educational officers and teachers. The abilities and achievements of these men must be evaluated as they return to school and college residence. Accreditation is now being negotiated in many educational institutions. This is not an easy task; it is hoped that this article may help some administrators to realize that, as one high ranking education officer reported: "The work was carried on by well-qualified instructors who were either college graduates or professional teachers and the records of work done were kept so conscientiously that they are worthy of recognition by any American institution." It is hoped that the following recently reported case may be typical of many others. A young officer who left for war service in the middle of his junior year of college, long held a prisoner in Germany, presented on his return evidence of having read carefully 134 serious books. His university gave him ten examinations. He was granted a diploma with honors and has been admitted to one of the best law schools.

The Program of the Inter-American Educational Foundation

By KENNETH HOLLAND

THE INTER-AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION was incorporated by the Office of Inter-American Affairs on September 25, 1943, for the purpose of implementing long-standing plans for hemisphere cooperation in the solution of fundamental educational problems. Educators in the Americas have seen for many years the necessity of working together to solve common problems; and several inter-American educational conferences, including the Conference of Ministers of Education of Central America (1942) and the Conference of Ministers and Directors of Education of the American Republics (1943), adopted resolutions proposing cooperative action to improve and strengthen educational facilities throughout the hemisphere.

There have been a number of previous attempts at educational cooperation between the United States and the other American republics. Among the most important were the two United States missions sent to Peru in 1909 and 1921. The first mission was made up of four persons—Harry Erwin Bard, Albert A. Giesecke, Joseph A. MacKnight, and Joseph B. Lockey—who became respectively adviser to the Minister of Education, rector of the University of Cuzco, director of the Normal School for men in Lima, and inspector for the departments of Lima and Callao. This group in collaboration with a committee of Peruvian educators made a thorough study of education on all levels and presented their recommendations and findings in a two-volume work published in 1911 and 1912.

The second Peruvian mission was much larger and included twenty-five persons, most of whom were assigned to administrative posts in the Ministry of Education. It began by preparing a new organic education law, based largely on the studies prepared by the first mission. Then in order to put

the new law into effect, it was decided to bring a large group of administrators and professional specialists from the United States to Peru. The personnel from the United States was expected to (1) see that the law was correctly interpreted and applied in a practical way to the needs of Peru, (2) create a competent professional corps of teachers, (3) provide school houses constructed according to modern principles of health and sanitation, and (4) put practical courses in vocational and health education into the primary and secondary curriculums. While the second mission did not achieve all that it set out to accomplish, it did attempt a program that is strikingly similar to the one now being carried on by the Inter-American Educational Foundation. As a consequence, the Foundation has studied the problems, achievements, and mistakes of these two missions to Peru so that it could build on their experience and avoid a repetition of their mistakes.

Another plan of educational cooperation worthy of note is the one developed by the Pan American Division of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace in 1914. Under this plan a group of twelve distinguished educators from the United States was sent to Latin America to study education problems and work out a program of cooperation. On its return to the United States this group suggested that a program of teaching English should be undertaken in all of the other American republics, that United States educational specialists should be made available to them, and that promising young men and women from these countries should be brought here for specialized training not available to them at home.

The development of closer educational relations among the Americas has been an integral part of the work of the Office of Inter-American Affairs since its establishment in August 1940. The Educational Foundation was established some three years later because it was realized that one of the significant bases for inter-American understanding was the attainment of improved educational opportunities and the raising of standards of living throughout the hemisphere.

Educational cooperation between nations implies a mutual interest, a mutual desire to understand, and a mutual effort to disseminate knowledge of each other's system of education. Viewed from the United States, educational cooperation with the other American republics implies on our part a desire to understand the educational and related problems of our hemisphere neighbors, a friendly willingness to assist interested Latin Americans in the development of educational philosophies and programs designed to attack and overcome their educational problems, and a genuine and friendly desire to help Latin Americans to understand our educational programs and philosophies.

The general objective of the Foundation is the development of cooperative educational programs with the other American republics that emphasize the improvement of elementary, secondary, and normal schools; vocational and health education, especially in rural areas; community-centered schools; literacy; and the teaching of the English language. Specifically the Foundation is seeking:

1. To cement inter-American relations upon a basis of the fullest mutual understanding among all the peoples of the hemisphere through educational programs founded on cooperative agreements adapted to the needs of the countries participating.

2. To raise the general levels of education, literacy, and living standards in all of the American republics, with the specific aim of developing a more enlightened public opinion which will be an important factor in the exclusion of totalitarianism from the hemisphere.

3. To prepare healthy, well-trained workers and technicians for the rapidly expanding industrial enterprises of the republics of the hemisphere.

4. To develop instructional and other materials needed to make the program as a whole a success. In carrying out this objective, materials will be prepared insofar as possible in the country where they are to be used so that they will satisfy local needs.

5. To emphasize the development of community schools. By a community school the Foundation visualizes a school that operates as a full-time educational center for children and adults; utilizes the resources of the community to invigorate the curriculum, which should be based on a study of community structure, processes, and problems; improves the community through participating in its activities; and coordinates all the educational efforts of the community.

6. To train nationals of the various countries as teachers and supervisors to carry on the work initiated by the Foundation. In these teacher-training programs considerable stress is being placed on the preparation of teachers of rural education, health education, and vocational education. This, however, does not mean that the training of teachers in other fields is being minimized or overlooked.

It is the educational authority of the interested country who determines the kind of program that is to be undertaken. When a minister of education determines the kind of program that he wants to carry out, or even before if he requests it, the Foundation assigns an educational specialist to advise him on the ways and means of carrying out his program and ideas.

All programs participated in by the Foundation are co-operative and are based on executive agreements between the United States and the host country, with each country contributing its proportionate share in funds, materials, and personnel. All agreements signed to date have been for a three-year period; however, the Foundation does not expect to carry its program to completion within that period of time. Although the Foundation's part in the program has been planned on a three-year basis, it should be understood that the program is viewed as a long-range development, and it is expected that during the period of the Foundation's activity the other governments will take over the programs and integrate them into their public school activities. By concentrating on one or two major educational problems in each country, it is hoped that during the three years of the Foundation's existence suf-

ficient momentum can be developed to insure the continuance of the projects it has initiated.

Every country, of course, has its peculiar problems and consequently the type of program developed varies from country to country. Certain things, however, are common to all the programs. All provide for (1) sending United States educational specialists to work with the minister of education and his staff, (2) developing teaching materials, and (3) bringing distinguished educators and teachers of the other American republics to the United States to lecture, discuss, study, and to participate in national, state, and local educational programs.

The interchange of students and teachers is one of the most important aspects of the Foundation's program. Teachers and students from Latin America who participate in this interchange are selected very carefully, and only those who have established positions in education to which they plan to return are selected to come to the United States. This policy was adopted to prevent the awarding of interchange grants to people who wanted to come to this country merely for the trip or who on their return home were not assured of definite positions with the Foundation's program. All too frequently persons brought to the United States under exchange programs find, on returning home, they have lost their jobs or their positions have been so changed that they have been able to accomplish very little. This is not to say that the Foundation opposes interchanges, but rather that interchanges should be definitely related to and a part of the action programs being carried out in the various countries.

Twenty-nine educators and teachers from the other American republics have already completed training programs in the United States and are now at work in collaboration with the Foundation on various aspects of the cooperative agreements in their respective countries. Sixteen persons from Brazil, Ecuador, Haiti, and Peru are now in the United States on exchange grants awarded by the Foundation, and invitations to come to the United States have been issued to forty-

five additional persons from Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.¹

Though the war brought into relief the necessity of initiating the cooperative educational program, it was not planned or justified to Congress as a wartime measure. It was realized from the beginning that a considerable amount of time would be required to attain all of the Foundation's objectives; however, it was thought that in the period of time at its disposal progress toward the solution of outstanding educational problems in the Americas could be made by pooling their educational resources in joint action programs.

At the outbreak of the war Germany, Italy, and Japan were supporting educational programs in Latin America, and it is estimated that at that time, the total number of Axis-sponsored schools in Latin America was 862, of which 670 were German, 58 Italian, and 134 Japanese. There are already indications that some of the former Axis teacher-propagandists are once again at work, and as displaced German populations are forced back from territories assigned to Russia and Poland, there will probably be a considerable German migration to Latin America with a corresponding increase of German influence there.

The programs of the Foundation are consequently of great importance and can contribute much to the maintenance of friendship and "Good Neighbor" relations in Latin America. For the first time educators of the American republics are cooperating on an extensive scale and are learning to appreciate and adapt new educational concepts to their own national and local conditions. These programs are contributing to the improvement of living standards, to the strengthening of democratic ideals, and are helping teachers, students, and community leaders to understand and accept more effective ways of achieving their educational objectives.

¹ Exchange grants are available to teachers and educators in all countries, even in those with which full-scale cooperative agreements have not been signed.

Agreements for cooperative educational programs have been signed and are in operation in fourteen countries: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, and Peru. Special programs of a less comprehensive nature have been developed in Argentina, Colombia, Cuba, and Mexico.

Results so far obtained are encouraging and indicate that real progress toward the solution of fundamental educational problems is being made. Final evaluation of the work of the Foundation, however, will not be possible until the generation now in school in the Americas reaches mature adult status. Then and only then will it be possible to measure concretely the Foundation's achievements.

Education and Intergroup Relations

By HERBERT L. SEAMANS

THE UNITED STATES comprises many peoples with diverse national, racial, and religious backgrounds. Immigrants bringing the customs and folklore of Old World civilizations have helped to create a new civilization here and have contributed to every phase of its life. This diversity of peoples combined with distinctive traditions, favorable climate, and abundant natural resources has helped to make our nation great.

We have taken our diversity for granted and until recent years have not considered it a matter for serious study. Our peoples have been able to live together fairly satisfactorily without giving too much thought to the understandings and relationships required if "liberty and justice for all" are to become realities for every group. We tended to sentimentalize our diversity without serious consideration of its implications for democracy and neglected the citizenship rights of important sections of our population, notably American Indians, Negroes, Hispanic Americans, and those of Oriental origin. During the periods of great immigration in the latter part of the nineteenth and the first two decades of the twentieth centuries, we accepted the melting pot theory with its implication that Old World cultures should be sloughed off and that a uniform so-called "American way of life" should be quickly adopted. The former was to be rejected as of little or no value, the latter was to be adopted uncritically, for was it not the best of all possible cultures? This attitude as adopted by the sons and daughters of Old World parents tended to create tensions in the home and often resulted in emotional maladjustments of a serious nature.

Following World War I the Ku Klux Klan rode again in many communities. It fed upon the traditional and widespread folk attitude that this was a white Protestant nation. It stigmatized Catholics, Jews, and Negroes chiefly, saying in substance that they were not true Americans. Its activities

and influence divided communities and left scars that have not healed fully to this day.

Since World War I various "shirt" organizations and bigoted individuals have circulated innuendoes which blamed one group or another for the many problems of society. The fears and economic distresses of various groups have been used cleverly as the basis of appeal, thereby diverting the attention of great numbers from the real causes of their difficulties. The result has been that suspicion, misunderstanding, and prejudice have been artificially propagated, and group has been set against group.

In 1928 after witnessing the destructive influence of the Klan, Charles Evans Hughes, former Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, the late Newton D. Baker, Secretary of War during World War I, and other farsighted persons called Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish leaders into conference to see what could be done to build good will and understanding among the religious groups comprising the nation. The National Conference of Christians and Jews was organized as a result of this concern. Its purpose has been to analyze, ameliorate, and finally eliminate prejudices which divide and distort community relations. It called upon members of the three great religious traditions to confer on common civic problems and to cooperate in the building of community standards consistent with the social teachings of these religions. It has sought through the years to create a new folk attitude of cooperation without compromise, of unity without uniformity. It has interpreted *e pluribus unum* in terms of the peoples of the nation, that is, that diversity within national unity is a source of national strength not weakness when understood, accepted, and implemented.

The activities of the National Conference have been far-reaching and much good work has been accomplished under its leadership. People from all walks of life have joined the crusade for better intergroup relationships. It is clear to National Conference leaders, however, that if a generation of youth is to be equipped to live satisfactorily in a culturally diverse society, all educational organizations must be enlisted

in a nation-wide program. At this moment in world history our diversity becomes a source of great danger unless this is done.

The repercussions of Nazi propaganda are far more extensive and deep-seated than is generally realized. The lies and innuendoes directed against the Jews by American propagandists, for example, have followed closely the "party line" of the Nazis. It is significant that the disease of anti-Semitism was not widespread in our nation thirty years ago. Now it is a deadly peril to our democracy. Its influence is illustrated by the fact that some of our people have condoned the terrible treatment of Jews meted out by the Nazis and on occasion have suggested that similar treatment should be awarded Jews in this country.

The Klan or its counterpart is becoming active again. Ostensibly disbanded, its ugly influence has stimulated overt expressions of hostility. The names of certain organizations may be different but the ideas and policies remain much the same. The shrewd leaders of such movements know that if they can capture the attention and interest of sufficient numbers, political power is possible. Following the war, economic tensions, frustrations, and disillusionments among both civilians and members of the armed services and the instability of great sections of our population provide fertile ground for the seeds of hate and prejudice.

Our democracy is under the scrutiny of the world as never before. Do we mean "liberty and justice for all"? Are members of all the various racial, national, and religious groups who served in the armed services to have full citizenship rights in their educational, social, and economic life? Will democracy really work during the difficult period of post-war readjustment? These and other questions are being raised in many places.

Not only is the world watching us but great numbers of our own citizens are questioning the meaning of democracy. Members of the armed services who represented every minority group in the nation are wondering if they will be permitted to *live* democracy after they had been willing to *die*

for it. They learned teamwork on the world battle fronts and notice a lack of it among many people back home.

It is with these considerations in mind that the Commission on Educational Organizations of the National Conference of Christians and Jews has reviewed its responsibilities. Headed by Howard E. Wilson, assistant director of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Commission consists of forty of the leading educators of the nation drawn from various geographical areas, who represent professional educational interests and Protestantism, Catholicism, and Judaism. Its field is public and parochial schools, and colleges and universities. It encourages research in human relations, the production of learning materials adapted to various age levels, and fosters a nation-wide program of educational activities in cooperation with the fifty-five offices of the National Conference.

A fundamental policy of the Commission is to encourage educational organizations, schools, and colleges to undertake intergroup education as an integral emphasis of their programs and curriculums. Whenever such a policy and program develops as a result of the Commission's activities it is accomplishing its purpose.

In keeping with this point of view, the Commission recommended to the board of trustees of the National Conference that it reach an agreement with the American Council on Education whereby national projects of the National Conference would be reviewed by the American Council and insofar as it wished to assume responsibility for such projects the National Conference would assist by providing counsel and funds. This policy has been agreed to by both organizations and several projects already have been undertaken by the American Council on Education.

In the late fall of 1943 the National Conference proposed to the American Council that a handbook on intergroup education for teachers colleges would be useful. A modest appropriation from the National Conference provided for a meeting of representatives of teacher education interests convened by President George F. Zook. At the first meeting it

became clear that a handbook of a general nature would not be as helpful as would a report based on intensive work with a limited number of typical teacher education institutions.

It was the unanimous opinion of those engaged in the preliminary negotiations that the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education with President Charles W. Hunt of the New York State Teachers College, Oneonta, as chairman, was the logical agency to undertake the study. Since it is an affiliated organization of the American Council, it was agreed that the funds would be appropriated to the American Council for its use. The executive committee of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education agreed and decided to act as the directing committee of the study. Lloyd Allen Cook, professor of sociology of Ohio State University, was invited to conduct the study and began his duties March 1, 1945.

It was proposed at first that the study should be confined to six institutions. On announcement of the project eighty-seven teacher education institutions requested that they be included. Dr. Cook asked that an outline of what each institution proposed to undertake as a part of the study be submitted for review by the committee. In addition he made many visits to likely institutions, conferring in each case with the administration and groups of faculty members. It was apparent that there was widespread need felt among the institutions and the selection of the limited group was, therefore, difficult. It was finally agreed that the following nine institutions would be included: Albany State Teachers College, New Jersey State Teachers College (Trenton), Milwaukee State Teachers College, George Peabody College, Ohio State University, Marshall College, West Virginia State College, Wayne University, and the University of Pittsburgh. Early in the fall of 1945, George Peabody College decided to withdraw temporarily, leaving eight institutions as the basis of the work.

One objective of the study has been to get the entire faculty of each institution to participate in it. Intergroup education is not another subject to be added. It is an emphasis to be integrated into every subject and every phase of institutional

life. It is with this objective in mind that Dr. Cook has arranged faculty consultations and workshops on the respective campuses and has developed his activities.

At Albany State Teachers College, the Student Council on Intergroup Relations is a live and effective organization. It was proposed that it invite delegates from the ten other teachers colleges of New York State to a two-day conference. This meeting was held November 2-3, 1945, with all institutions represented and delegates from Wayne University and New Jersey State Teachers College also in attendance. The entire faculty and student body of Albany were invited to participate. The thirteen hundred who heard the keynote address by President John W. Davis of West Virginia State College gave him an ovation. The practical discussions and the concluding address by Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt convinced all who attended that preparation for intergroup education is an essential part of a teacher's professional equipment. A similar conference for the teachers colleges of Wisconsin occurred December 5, 1945, initiated by Milwaukee State Teachers College with the active cooperation of the Milwaukee office of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. The study, therefore, is influencing many more institutions than those included in the basic study.

The terminal date of the study is January 1, 1946, and a report will be issued for use by all institutions. However, it became clear during the spring of 1945, that the project should be continued and expanded. The executive committee of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, with Karl W. Bigelow, Teachers College, Columbia University, as chairman, has submitted a proposal to the National Conference calling for additions to the staff and the inclusion of many other institutions. These changes would make the project more truly national in character.

Another project undertaken by the American Council at the request of the National Conference has been a study of teaching materials used in schools and colleges to ascertain how religious, racial, and national groups are treated. On

the basis of these findings constructive recommendations will be made to publishers, textbook editors, and writers.

This study was assigned to Howard E. Wilson and was carried on at Harvard University. James L. Hanley, superintendent of schools, Providence, Rhode Island, was appointed chairman of the committee to direct the study. A staff of five concluded the basic work on July 1, 1945, and the report now is in process of final editing.

It is not possible to report here the many interesting facts discovered. One example, however, is that the word "race" is used in many and often unscientific ways. It also is evident that little attention is given to the science of human relations in school texts and that the most glaring defects are the omission of pertinent data rather than prejudiced treatment. Certainly this is true of the manner of dealing with religious groups. Furthermore, pictures used to illustrate the texts do not depict adequately the diversity of peoples comprising the nation, and the final report will contain recommendations regarding visual aids.

On completion of the project, textbook publishers will be invited to examine the report, and it is expected that the recommendations will have continuing and far-reaching influence upon the production of teaching materials. It is an important attempt to secure the production of the tools for learning necessitated by our diversity.

In August 1944 the National Council for the Social Studies, an affiliate of the American Council, requested a grant of funds from the National Conference for the publication of a yearbook in intergroup education to be issued in 1945. This was approved by the American Council and the National Conference and an appropriation was made available. Stanley Dimond, director of social studies in the Detroit Public Schools, was appointed chairman of the committee in charge by the National Council. Hilda Taba of the University of Chicago and William Van Til, editor of publications of the Bureau for Intercultural Education, were appointed editor and assistant editor respectively. The yearbook was published in December 1945 and for the first time makes avail-

able to social studies teachers best practices in intergroup education as developed across the nation by teachers in this field. A report on this yearbook was submitted by Mr. Dimond and his associates at the annual conference of the National Council in Milwaukee the latter part of November 1945.

Dr. Taba circularized a large number of social studies teachers asking for reports on interesting and valuable experiences. A great mass of material was sent in. After careful sifting of this material, "observers" in different parts of the nation were requested to visit classrooms where significant experiences were being developed to appraise firsthand the materials and methods used. These reports from field workers supplemented the paper plans and added reality to the report.

On completion of the yearbook the Committee will give consideration to use of material not included in it. A great deal of helpful experience could not be included because of limitations of space. It is possible, therefore, that the Committee will propose a series of brochures based upon that experience and will turn to the National Conference for additional financial aid in accomplishing this.

An experimental program of in-service teacher education among eighteen leading school systems is another project. It is known formally as Cooperating Schools in Intergroup Education and is under the direction of Dr. Taba and a committee of the American Council headed by Charles H. Lake, superintendent of Cleveland schools and president of the American Association of School Administrators.

This project began January 1, 1945, with the public school systems of Cleveland, Milwaukee, South Bend, and Pittsburgh. It soon became clear that the work was so needed and so welcome that it should be continued and expanded. In the fall of 1945 the school systems of the following cities were added to the original four: Shorewood, Wisconsin; Denver, Colorado; St. Louis, Missouri; Newark, New Jersey; Wilmington, Delaware; Hartford, Connecticut; Minneapolis, Minnesota; San Francisco, California; Oakland,

California; Portland, Oregon. The Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago and the school systems of Riverside and Los Angeles counties, California, have been added also. One additional school system is to be selected by the committee. Dr. Taba has added five persons to her staff, including specialists in literature, social studies, and child education, in order to meet the demands of this important list of experimental centers. The second phase of the project is to continue until August 31, 1947, at which time the experience will be assessed and a report will be issued to be made available to schools throughout the nation. As in the case of the other projects the National Conference is providing the funds and assisting in many ways.

It has become increasingly clear that the schools cannot do the job alone. It is necessary to enlist the interest and understanding of parents and community forces. One means of accomplishing this has been through institutes or conferences to which school and community leaders are invited. Another is encouragement of intergroup education programs in the activities of community organizations. It is here that the local community round tables of the National Conference have proved to be especially helpful. They conduct year-round programs of adult education and reach groups of all kinds. They have been effective means of creating sentiment for intergroup education and understanding of its importance to the welfare of the nation.

At the present writing negotiations are nearing completion with the National Council of Teachers of English whereby this agency, an affiliate of the American Council, will issue a series of pamphlets and books designed to aid teachers to use literature as a means of intergroup understanding and good will. In many ways this promises to be one of the most rewarding and effective projects.

The field of intergroup education is relatively new. It is a pioneer field lacking adequately trained personnel and teaching materials. The cooperation of the American Council on Education and the National Conference of Christians and Jews promises to help fill these needs. It is the hope that more such cooperative projects will be developed.

The Encouragement of Good Teaching

By LLOYD E. BLAUCH

ONE OF THE MOST vital problems that confronts a college or university is how it may develop and maintain superior teaching.¹ Sometimes the teaching service is minimized because of the great variety of other services which faculties are called upon to render. However, this service is central in practically all colleges and universities, and it is certainly worthy of every effort to make it as effective as possible. Therefore, it behooves those who are in charge of institutions of higher education to provide the educational leadership and to take the necessary measures to facilitate the work of the teaching staff and encourage them to improve their service.

The improvement of instruction should have a definite place in the administrative policy of a college or university. It can be accomplished only through the wholehearted cooperation of the teaching staff. A basic consideration in any effort in this direction is that the teachers themselves must desire to render increasingly effective instructional service.

Administrative officials may do many things to promote right attitudes on the part of the teachers and to stimulate and encourage good instruction. In their addresses to the faculty and in conferences with it, the presidents and deans may stress the importance of good teaching. They may well take every opportunity to express their personal gratification over success in teaching attained by members of the staff. They find it helpful to pass along to teachers, both collectively and individually, the appreciation of students, colleagues, and alumni for teaching that is well done. Such evidence of personal concern for good teaching is highly effective.

Members of the teaching staff may also do many things, both individually and collectively, to improve their instruction.

¹This article is an adaptation of a chapter in *Teaching in Colleges and Universities* by Lloyd E. Blauch and associates, recently published by the American Association of Dental Schools, 1121 West Michigan Street, Indianapolis, Ind.

Leadership for such efforts may well be taken by staff members who like to teach, who are excellent teachers, and who are concerned that their institution shall render the best possible service to students. They may work with administrative officials in providing various helpful ways and means toward better teaching.

Lectures and forum discussions of teaching can be employed to good effect by faculties. These exercises may be held occasionally, but they carry greater promise if they are regular and continuous and are scheduled by topics over a considerable period such as a semester or quarter. The series may constitute an effort to cover systematically the field of teaching, or it may deal with particular problems and phases of teaching. The usual plan is to have a lecturer from outside the institution deliver the formal lecture which may be followed by a panel discussion, by questions put to the lecturer, or by discussion by the entire faculty. These lectures and forum discussions may take the place of a sizable proportion of the faculty meetings.

One of the principal difficulties encountered in using such lectures and forums is to find lecturers and leaders who are competent. Much of the content for such exercises is available in widely scattered references, but it has not been well organized for this purpose. Courses in teaching as given by departments of education are usually directed at teaching in elementary and secondary schools, and very few educationists have carefully studied how to teach more mature students.

A well-organized seminar or course in teaching has obvious advantages over a series of lectures and forum discussions. Such a seminar may be given by a faculty member of recognized competence in teaching or by someone from outside the institution. Certain teachers may be invited to participate in the seminar, or it may be open to all members of the staff who manifest an interest. Younger teachers in particular should find such a seminar helpful, but older teachers should also find it profitable provided they can enter into the spirit of work required to make the exercise a success.

The seminar may consist largely of a general and systematic study of teaching, or it may be devoted to particular problems or aspects of teaching. For example, a seminar might study visual aids in learning and teaching, another might deal with tests and examinations, and another might consider such teaching procedures as the lecture, discussion, and individualized instruction. Some of the seminars might not require more than a few hours, while others would require from ten to fifteen hours. The methods used should be those generally employed in seminars, in which the individual members are assigned topics and problems which they investigate and report on.

A short conference or workshop conducted on a campus immediately preceding the opening of certain quarters or semesters can be made an opportunity to discuss methods and problems of teaching. Such conferences should have specific objectives and should be well organized. The assistance of outside experts may add greatly to the success of the conferences, but it is by no means necessary provided competent and interested leadership can be had within the faculty, as is frequently the case.

Supervision of instruction is rather rare in higher education, and often it is not understood. In the minds of persons who are not well informed it consists primarily of finding fault with the work of a teacher. This is a wrong view. Criticism by an adviser or supervisor may be necessary, but the proper function of supervision is to point the way to improved teaching.

One of the principal means of supervision is the visiting of classes to observe the teacher at work. This is used in some institutions as a way of assisting beginning teachers to develop teaching power. In such instances the one who observes the teaching serves as an advisor or counselor, rather than as an inspector. The visits are frequent—so frequent that they do not produce unnatural situations. Usually the teacher knows when the visits will be made. He and his adviser may talk over the work in advance in order that there may be a common

understanding as to what is being undertaken in the instruction. Usually there is a conference after the class exercise has been completed, at which time the adviser may commend the work, make suggestions for improvement, or in other ways assist the teacher in comprehending the strength and the weakness of his performance. Such supervision can succeed only if it is carried on in a spirit of friendliness and mutual respect.

In a few colleges and universities all classes are visited at regular intervals by deans and heads of departments, and the supervision is carried on systematically and carefully. In some of them a report on each teacher is obtained once or twice a year. Other means of supervision are the scrutiny of a teacher's course outlines and syllabi, examination questions, and other evidences of how he does his work.

The general supervision of instruction is the responsibility of the dean of a faculty and the heads of the departments, but it may be delegated largely to someone who is employed for that purpose, as a director of instruction. The supervision of the teaching of inexperienced faculty members may be assigned to particular faculty members and carried out on an individual basis.

An investigation of a faculty's teaching efficiency can be used to excellent effect in promoting better teaching. Such an investigation can be made by a faculty committee, by a dean or director of instruction, or by an expert from outside the faculty. It should be conducted as objectively as possible and in ways that the faculty can approve. In general, the purpose should be to discover the strong features and the weak features of the teaching and to develop ways of improving the instruction, rather than to appraise the work of individuals, although the latter may also have a place in a survey of teaching. The report of a thorough investigation can be an excellent basis for faculty conferences on teaching and for other measures to develop the teaching power of the staff.

Additional means for stimulating and promoting improvement in teaching are: (1) Appoint a faculty committee on instruction with major responsibility for directing a program

aimed at improving the teaching of the staff. (2) Employ a director of instruction to carry on research in teaching, conduct faculty seminars in teaching, and in other appropriate ways stimulate the development of better teaching. (3) Have experienced teachers cooperate with inexperienced teachers in conducting courses. (4) Grant leave with pay for advanced study, requiring at the same time some study of teaching and other educational problems by the teacher receiving the leave. (5) Distribute among the staff a news letter, special bulletins, and pamphlets on teaching. (6) Provide for consultative service of specialists outside the faculty. (7) Provide opportunity for teachers to visit classes and observe the work of other teachers in the institution; arrange for teachers to visit other institutions to observe and study methods of teaching in their respective fields. (8) Encourage (a) membership in scientific, professional, and educational organizations, (b) attendance at meetings of these organizations, and (c) participation in their work.

One of the universally recognized great faults in university administration is the absence of proper criteria and adequate procedures for appraising faculty services. Nevertheless, appraisals, however inadequate or unsatisfactory, are made; teachers are promoted and salaries are increased, even though the bases of evaluation are not entirely satisfactory. Perhaps the most important single step that could be taken to raise the standard of college and university teaching would be to devise appropriate criteria and adequate procedures to appraise the work of its faculty with respect to instruction.

Measures taken to appraise teaching are often opposed by entire faculties or by some individuals, and no doubt this is one reason why adequate means have not yet been developed for it. All too frequently the feeling is found that the college or university teacher should be permitted to do his work as he sees best. Some teachers regard any steps to evaluate their services as an unwarranted invasion of their prerogatives, as something that is not in accordance with the dignity of teaching in institutions of higher learning. Administrative au-

thorities often feel that this attitude is most unfortunate, that it has hindered the development of superior teaching and encouraged mediocrity in instruction.

Several plans and procedures are used in various institutions to evaluate their teaching, among which are personal observation of teaching, study of the opinions of students, and a canvass of the opinions of alumni.

On first thought it would appear that the best way to evaluate a teacher's work and service is to have some competent person observe his classroom performance. Such a personal examination is similar to one's evaluation or appraisal of anything concerning which he has to make a judgment.

Although personal observation of teaching may often yield the information desired, it has certain shortcomings when used as a means of evaluating teaching. First, the teacher is placed at a disadvantage because the teaching situation is an unnatural one. He cannot easily concentrate on the business in hand when he knows that a visitor—something of an interloper—is there to size him up. Naturally the teacher tries to "put his best foot forward," and his effectiveness as a teacher suffers. Often the results are anything but satisfactory, and the observer is unable to form a fair judgment. Second, the observer assumes that he knows what good teaching is and can recognize it, and he uses his personal standard as a measuring rod. In reality, his conception of adequate teaching may be no better than that of the one who is being observed, and he who is under observation may know this or at least feel it very strongly.

The difficulties mentioned have deterred institutions from making extensive use of personal observation for purposes of evaluation. Nevertheless, it is employed in some colleges and universities, and apparently to good effect. The caution to be noted is that the procedure should be carried on in tactful ways that are recognized as absolutely fair. Obviously the individual who visits classes for the purpose of appraising the work of teachers should be sympathetic, courteous, and

diplomatic in his actions and be recognized by the teachers as one who is competent to judge teaching.

There is no doubt that heads of departments and other administrative officers judge the teaching effectiveness of their staff members by campus opinions, largely the opinions of students. Very often no attempt is made to collect and study such opinions systematically; the administrator merely picks up information from contacts with students in personal conferences, visits, and other casual and informal relations, or he obtains it from gleanings his assistants may make from campus gossip or contacts with students.

The dangers in relying upon such opinions, accumulated in a rather desultory fashion and sometimes surreptitiously, are patent. The failing or disgruntled students are likely to be more vocal than the others. Moreover, these students tend to have more contacts with administrative officers than other students have. It is readily seen, therefore, that the administrator may evaluate his teaching staff too much with the use of a biased sample. Inasmuch as considerable use is made of the opinions of students in appraising the services of teachers, ways have been devised to collect such opinions systematically and openly. Thus the tendency to a lopsided weighting is overcome, and the entire process is "above board" and understood by everyone concerned.

A good case can be made for using the judgments of students in appraising teaching. Students observe the teacher at work day after day. Naturally they pass judgment on their teachers—this is clearly their right. Although students may not know what are the elements of good teaching, they are certainly competent to know whether the instruction they receive is of interest and value to them, and they can answer direct and specific questions giving their own reactions. The study of the opinions of students brings to light many facts about teachers that would otherwise not come to the attention either of the teachers themselves or of the administrative officers. Moreover, studies of the opinions of students concerning the instruction they receive are easily carried on and at no great expense.

Objections have been made to the use of opinions of students in appraising teachers. It is said that students are not competent to judge the merit of a teaching process or its results; that they are immature and prejudiced; that such things as grades, emotional attitudes, and amount of work required by a teacher distort the student's judgment concerning a teacher; that inasmuch as teachers may be, and often are, hostile to the use of opinions in appraising teaching, the morale of the teacher is lowered and teaching efficiency is interfered with; and that teachers may cater too much to the opinions of students and court their favor in ways that are not conducive to high intellectual standards. Careful studies have shown that practically none of these objections have any validity when the collection and interpretation of the opinions is properly safeguarded and carried on by persons who are adequately prepared for it.

The means employed to collect opinions of students concerning college teaching are of two general types. One type consists of a list of questions which the student answers in the positive or negative. The other type is the rating scale consisting of a number of traits for each of which the student indicates the degree or amount possessed by the teacher. The most widely known of these is the Purdue Rating Scale developed at Purdue University.

Scales for rating teachers can be used for several purposes. Their most valuable use is to inform the teacher as to the effect of his instruction upon his students—information that is of vital interest to any teacher. They serve to locate teachers who are misfits, sources of trouble, problem teachers, teachers whose work is unsatisfactory. They also help to call competent teachers to the attention of administrative authorities, to place promotion on an objective and a fair basis, and to protect the standing of teachers who are rendering good service.

Opinions of alumni concerning their former teachers may also be useful. The advantage of these opinions over those of students is that the alumni have a more mature and seasoned outlook, and they tend to judge the teaching from the

point of view of its long-time effects. The disadvantages of their opinions are (1) that it is difficult and expensive to obtain them, and (2) that the opinions of alumni represent a biased sample, since they do not usually include the opinions of students who failed to graduate, some of whom, it may be presumed, were more adversely affected by the teaching than those who survived. It may also be said that no evidence has been obtained which would indicate that the opinions of alumni are superior to those of students as a basis for appraising teaching.

The administrator has at his command several additional aids and means for appraising the service of the teaching staff. He may gain some light from a teacher's colleagues. It would, of course, be a very doubtful practice for an administrator to make a formal canvass of faculty members for opinions about the teaching effectiveness of their colleagues.

The administrator may study a teacher's course outlines and syllabi, which indicate the preparation the teacher has made for teaching, the thinking he does, his ability to organize knowledge for teaching purposes, and many sidelights on his conception of a teacher's functions. Some deans regularly collect from the teachers outlines and syllabi for all courses and file them conveniently for use. Incidentally it may be noted that such materials afford an excellent means of checking on the actual content of the curriculum. Likewise, a study of the examinations given by a teacher to his students affords some indication of the thoroughness of his work and what he expects of his students.

The achievement of a teacher's students in comprehensive examinations shows to some extent the effectiveness of his teaching provided the examining function is carried out by someone other than the teacher. Clearly the use of comprehensive examinations for the appraisal of teaching is valid only if the objectives of the instruction were clearly defined and if the examinations measure the attainment of those objectives.

The conditions that surround teaching in colleges and uni-

versities have much to do with its quality. Where faculty morale is high, salaries and tenure are satisfactory, and physical facilities are adequate, one expects to find good and superior teaching. For this reason standardizing groups take these conditions into account when evaluating an educational institution for approval.

One of the most potent ways to encourage good teaching is to reward it with promotion in rank and increases in salary. When teaching power is recognized in these objective ways, great efforts will be made by members of the staff to attain it. Superior teaching may also be rewarded through other forms of recognition, such as special public mention and special financial awards made annually. Good teachers are often drawn into administrative work because of the higher pay attached to such work. This results, of course, in a weakening of the teaching because it does not receive the same financial recognition as administration.

It is particularly important that opportunities be provided for the advancement of capable young members of a teaching staff. Occasionally one finds institutions that take on each year a number of young teachers, many of them just graduated, keep them a year or two, and then turn them out to make room for another group of low-paid assistants and instructors. There is no thought of promoting any considerable proportion of these beginning teachers, for there are not places in the upper ranks for them. Under such circumstances there is ordinarily little incentive for young teachers to strive to do good teaching.

Good physical facilities are an important factor in encouraging good teaching, for only with adequate physical facilities can a teacher render his best service. The library, classrooms, faculty offices, laboratories, and clinics should be so planned as to reinforce in every possible way the efforts of the student and the teacher. Abundance of light, proper heat and ventilation, cleanliness, and general attractiveness of surroundings are conducive to a spirit of work, while their opposites tend to depress effort and destroy the desire to excel.

The necessity for adequate tools is easily understood. No one can teach well without a sufficient stock of them. Books, laboratory and chemical equipment, exhibits, motion pictures, and specimens are needed; these tools are more essential in education today than ever before, for good teaching now consists very largely of placing them in the hands of the student and showing him what use to make of them.

The individual faculty office is a great asset to a teacher. Here he can keep his working materials convenient for use. In such an office he can prepare for his teaching without suffering too many interruptions; without it extensive study and research are practically impossible. He can use an office to see students privately, which is essential, particularly in individualized teaching. The psychological effect upon the teacher of having a good private office is not to be considered lightly. Indeed, without a private office a college or university teacher is greatly handicapped in his work.

Such are some of the ways and means which colleges and universities may employ to encourage improvement in teaching. Others that might well be considered are the preparation of teachers before they begin their service, research as a factor in good teaching, and the relation of extramural professional and consultative service to the teaching of students.

Undoubtedly one of the most vital and most neglected problems of higher education is the improvement of teaching. Some faculty members do superb teaching, and others carry on their instruction in very satisfactory and commendable ways. Unfortunately there are other teachers whose instruction is mediocre or even poor. Through encouragement by the appropriate authorities and through determined effort on their own part, some of these less competent faculty members can and do become good teachers and others improve their work. There is no doubt whatever that much of the teaching can be greatly improved if colleges and universities provide sufficient encouragement and if faculties make good teaching a definite goal.

A Curriculum Survey of Hawaiian Schools, 1944-45

By EDGAR M. DRAPER

FEW COMMUNITIES have been confronted with the complex educational problems peculiar to the Hawaiian Islands. Hawaii is not a large geographical area. The total area of its six islands is considerably less than the state of New Jersey, and its total population is less than that of Louisville or Indianapolis. In December 1944, there were 81,250 pupils in its 186 public schools. Some of these were pure Hawaiians, Asiatics, West Indians, Europeans, and Americans, but mostly they were of mixed blood. Not infrequently a half-dozen different races have been combined to make a thoroughly American boy or girl of 1945. One charming teen-age girl of McKinley High School was a mixture of Hawaiian, Norwegian, French, Spanish, Chinese, Portuguese; another was Hawaiian, German, Dutch, Irish, Scottish, Indian. Language difficulties and conflicting native cultures present unique problems to the teacher whose job it is to teach American citizenship as well as reading, writing, and algebra.

The way the schools functioned in the critical days following December 7, 1941, and throughout the war period, provided convincing evidence that Hawaii's school system was realistic, functional, and democratic. It was a tribute to the people of the Territory who planned it and who for the last twenty-five years have worked continuously for its improvement.

Four extensive surveys of the schools have been made since 1920, and constructive changes have been made after each survey. The first survey, in 1920, was made by the department of education; the second, in 1930, was under the direction of C. A. Prosser; the third, in 1940, was a community effort in which more than three hundred citizens of the Territory worked under the general direction of Miss Elizabeth M.

Collins. The fourth was authorized by the Holdover Committees of the Senate and the House of Representatives of the Hawaiian Legislature of 1943 and was sponsored by the American Council on Education. I had the pleasure of directing the survey for the Council, with the assistance of Miss Alice H. Hayden, assistant professor of educational research at the University of Washington. We spent the month of December 1944 in the Islands and visited fifty-six schools. Interest, constructive criticism, and a willingness to support sound educational measures were everywhere apparent during the time the survey was being conducted.

The original budget for the survey was augmented later by a supplementary grant for the publication of a report. Fifteen hundred copies of this illustrated volume entitled *Hawaiian Schools: A Curriculum Survey, 1944-45* will be furnished to the Hawaiian Legislature for distribution in the Islands. The book will be ready early in 1946. A preliminary report was furnished to the legislature in the early spring of 1945.

The curriculum survey of 1944-45 made no pretense of analyzing intensively all phases of education in the Territory of Hawaii. It was especially concerned with school curriculums, but there were many aspects of education such as administration, supervision, building programs, and teacher training which were closely associated with problems in the area of curriculum improvement and had to be considered insofar as they had a bearing on the investigations and recommendations.

The attack on Pearl Harbor by the Japanese on December 7, 1941, had immediate repercussions upon the schools and necessitated many readjustments in the succeeding days of confusion and distress. In fact, continuous modifications have been made in the educational program, first as Hawaii was made secure and then as it became the base from which our armed services sent out their task forces for the reconquest of the Pacific. The schools did not open on December 8, 1941, and continued to be closed as formal and regular educational

institutions until February 2, 1942. However, during that period most of the teachers and many of the pupils worked long hours at finger-printing, registering, and other essential tasks such as aiding in the housing and feeding of evacuees and refugees from areas or homes which had been damaged, assisting in the activities of the Red Cross, and serving as fire patrols and wardens. School buildings were taken over entirely or partially by many different agencies, including the Navy, Army, Marine Corps, and the Office of Civilian Defense. They were used principally as barracks, schools, technical training centers, and hospitals by the armed forces, while the civilian defense groups used the buildings and facilities as bases and training centers.

A large number of teachers and many of the older pupils went into war industries, the armed services, or the regular agricultural, industrial, and commercial activities of the community. The first call upon the faculties of the schools came in the areas of vocational work, as the need for experienced people in this field was critical. As a result more than forty industrial arts teachers went into either the armed services or war industries within a few weeks after Pearl Harbor. As war activities grew, wages and salaries increased, and teachers from fields other than industrial arts and vocational education left the profession for more lucrative positions in industry and business.

The reopening of school on February 2, 1942, presented many problems in practically all of the schools. In some instances the loss of all or a part of the school buildings and school facilities to war services and defense agencies made it necessary for the teachers and pupils to use improvised or temporary buildings and equipment and in many cases to convene on a half-day basis. The reduction in the number of both teachers and pupils in most of the schools made it imperative that classes and pupils be rescheduled. Since teachers and pupils were needed to participate in war activities, it was necessary to modify schedules and plans for the complete re-establishment of the education program. The curricular and

activity adjustments necessary varied from school to school, since no two institutions had to modify their programs in exactly the same way in order to grant the requests made by the various military and civilian agencies. Farrington High School in Honolulu lost its entire plant when it was taken over for use as a hospital. Only a comparatively few pupils left this school, and as a result a large student body had to make a complete adjustment during the war period in temporary quarters nearby. Roosevelt High School gave up some of its facilities but was able to maintain a full-day schedule for its pupils in its own building. McKinley High School with more than four thousand pupils, the largest in the Territory, adjusted its program so that one of the large private schools, St. Louis College, whose entire plant had been taken over by the Army, might share its buildings and facilities. The fine new plant of the Makawao Elementary School on the island of Maui was being used for a hospital, and the pupils and teachers, under the able leadership of Mrs. Foss, made remarkable educational adjustments in rather primitive quarters in the same community.

Many curricular adjustments have been made as the result of the war emergency. These were imperative in some instances because of loss of housing, loss of staff, and the allocation of 10 percent to 20 percent of the pupils' time to plantation work and community service. In many instances, the schools in Hawaii have developed patterns similar to those organized in most of the schools on the mainland.

The record of the teachers, administrators, and pupils in the schools of the Territory has been very impressive during the war period. The examples presented above are not inclusive, but they are sufficiently diversified to illustrate that the schools were open and functioning; teachers, assisted by volunteers, were carrying on; and many activities of a professional nature were being developed by the staff. In all of the activities related to the war effort, the pupils were making a real contribution in the classroom, in industry, and on the plantations, and by supporting the war effort through the investment of their savings.

The following statements from *Postwar Needs of Education in Hawaii* describe the magnitude of the educational task which was Hawaii's and indicate the success which has attended its development of public education.

The meaning of Hawaii's program of education for the past and present of Hawaii we cannot hope to indicate completely. There are, however, certain important conditions in Hawaii which, clearly, have been produced in large degree by public education. All may note Hawaii's development as a democratic community, the stable political allegiance demonstrated during the war, the general intelligence capable of providing the skills of all kinds needed by Hawaii's enormously complex industrial and agricultural developments, the social stability due to universal experience of personal growth, and the prospect of early statehood for Hawaii.

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Those in control attempted consciously to build a democratic community. Hawaii's unique and significant distinction lies in the success that has attended this venture. In a degree astonishing to those who note it for the first time there has been a welding of this social miscellany, with all its abrupt differences, into a democratic community. Various agencies, private schools, press, church, industrial and business management, and many others, of course, have contributed to this end. But the instrumentality, effective beyond all others, has been Hawaii's program of public school education.¹

The official report of the Department of Public Instruction for the island of Kauai for the year 1943-44 presents an interesting picture of the racial groups which are represented in all of the schools of the Territory. Of the 7,314 pupils enrolled in the elementary and secondary schools of Kauai, 192 were Hawaiians, 754 were part Hawaiian, 512 were Portuguese, 174 were Puerto Rican, 42 were Spanish, 110 belonged to other Caucasian races, 3,912 were Japanese, 113 were Chinese, 50 were Korean, 1,145 were Filipino, and all other races were represented by 279 pupils.

The Survey Committee met one group of fifteen pupils at

¹ Report on the *Postwar Needs of Education in Hawaii* for the Editing Committee of the Hawaii Committee on Education in Postwar Reconstruction. Unpublished report, December 1944.

the McKinley High School in Honolulu which represented eighteen different racial and national backgrounds. Several of these intelligent, handsome young people were descendants of national groups representing several different races. It is no exaggeration to say that Hawaii is the melting pot of the world.

Few recommendations were made by the American Council Survey Committee with regard to modifications in the curriculum in special subject-matter areas. Improvement in these specific curriculum areas, such as language arts, social studies, science, and reading, should be arrived at as a result of professional study and experimentation on the part of teachers and administrators under the direction of a staff of specialists in the Department of Public Instruction working with other specialists from the University of Hawaii. Instruction offered in the public schools must be adapted to the needs of the children and adults attending these schools. Many of the curriculum problems can be solved only by those who are close enough to the people and to the Territory to possess the knowledge and understanding necessary to determine the patterns needed and the modifications desirable. This does not mean that the Survey Committee did not study carefully all previous courses of study which have been developed and all units of work now being developed in the public schools. Many suggestions were made concerning these learning and teaching vehicles in the core studies, but the Committee did not undertake comprehensive studies in particular curriculum areas.

The survey encompassed all types and levels of the public schools. It also included a study of the work of the Department of Public Instruction and the offerings in Teachers College of the University of Hawaii. This survey dealt principally with the existing curriculum and a careful examination of the procedures being used in curriculum improvement. An analysis of the work in progress and a study of its operation in the public schools indicated certain weaknesses which needed modification in order to develop an effectively functioning curriculum-improvement program.

The effectiveness of any program is in large measure dependent upon the personnel of the administrative staff to whom responsibility is delegated. It is also highly essential that rapport and cooperation be established with all teachers and administrators, with all departments of the school system, and with the community.

The recommendations presented by the Survey Committee will solve many of the curriculum problems and will provide a pattern which will facilitate curriculum improvement. These recommendations covered the following phases of the educational program in Hawaii:

1. The reorganization of the Department of Public Instruction so that an adequate administrative, supervising, and teaching staff would be available to participate in a curriculum-improvement program. Associate superintendents, assisted by directors and specialists, were recommended for four new divisions in the Department of Public Instruction which were designated as instruction, child growth and development, vocational education, and administration, finance, buildings and grounds. District superintendents, each assisted by six specialists as field workers, were recommended for each of the five territorial subdivisions. The cost of instituting this program would be approximately \$550,000.

2. The reorganization of the Board of Commissioners of Public Instruction who formulate educational policies for the Territory. This recommendation was based upon a complete redistricting of the Islands for educational purposes.

3. The development of a curriculum pattern within which teachers, supervisors, and administrators can work on a functional curriculum-improvement program, including the study of child development.

4. The development of both pre-service and in-service teacher-education programs by the University of Hawaii and the Department of Public Instruction.

5. An improved salary schedule in order to retain members of the profession now employed by the Department of Public Instruction and to induce excellent students at the University of Hawaii to enroll in the Teachers College.

6. The modification of the present law so that at least 20 percent of the new teachers and administrators may be secured from the mainland annually.

7. The development of reasonable standards governing the promotion and graduation of pupils.

8. The extension of vocational education and closer articulation between the school and various industrial and commercial activities.

9. Increased facilities for kindergartens, remedial education, visual and auditory instruction, physical education, and health.

10. A careful study of present school buildings and provisions for the development of a building program under the direction of an expert.

11. A careful study of schoolbooks and supplementary materials with provisions for territorial aid for new and small schools.

12. The development of a teacher-training program at the University of Hawaii for high school teachers and suggested curricular modification for the certification of both teachers and administrators.

Early in February 1945, a preliminary eighty-five page report was submitted to the Holdover Committee as a basis for recommendations to the 1945 sessions of the legislatures.

In May the Legislature of Hawaii passed the following resolutions concerning the preliminary report submitted by the Survey Committee:

Resolved, By the House of Representatives of the Legislature of the Territory of Hawaii, Regular Session of 1945, the Senate concurring, that the preliminary report on the curriculum survey of the public schools of the Territory of Hawaii submitted by the Survey Committee be used as a basis for any future consideration of the reorganization of the administration of the Department of Public Instruction and for the determination of the future policy, curriculum, and program of the public schools of the Territory of Hawaii; and be it further

Resolved, That the Department of public instruction give full consideration to the recommendations contained in said report and use them in its future policy, curriculum, and program of the public schools of the said Territory.

The Council at Work

THE Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring additional information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

The Problems and Policies Committee is scheduled to meet at the Council offices in Washington on February 9 and 10. At that time the Committee will give further consideration to a number of matters which were discussed initially at the meeting in October 1945, including a possible commission in aid of public education, a Washington center in the field of public administration, the implications for education of new scientific developments and evolving social movements.

Nickolaus L. Engelhardt, associate superintendent of schools of New York City, was elected to membership on the Problems and Policies Committee at the meeting of the Executive Committee on October 6 to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Edmund E. Day. Dr. Engelhardt will serve until the annual meeting of the Council in May 1946.

The Executive Committee of the Council will meet in Washington on February 16. A nominating committee will be appointed at that time to propose a slate of officers and members of the Executive Committee of the Council to be elected at the annual meeting.

THE 1946 ANNUAL MEETING

The 1946 annual meeting of the Council will be held on May 3 and 4 at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, the opening session being scheduled for 10:00 A.M. on May 3. It is hoped that there will be a large attendance of the Council membership at this meeting, the first since May 1942.

Preceding the annual meeting, there will be a meeting of the delegates from constituent member organizations, to be held on May 2, beginning at 2 P.M.

MEMBERSHIP

The Executive Committee, at its meeting on October 6, 1945, accepted the following new members:

Constituent:

- American Pharmaceutical Association
- Association of Governing Boards of State Universities and Allied Institutions
- National Congress of Parents and Teachers
(A transfer from associate membership)

Institutional:

- Bethlehem City Schools, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania
- Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell, South Dakota
- Drury College, Springfield, Missouri
- Grosse Pointe Country Day School and Detroit University School,
Grosse Pointe, Michigan
- Kansas City Junior College, Kansas City, Missouri
- Maryville College, St. Louis, Missouri
- Seattle College, Seattle, Washington
- Shaw University, Raleigh, North Carolina
- Stowe Teachers College, St. Louis, Missouri
- Utah Agricultural College, Logan, Utah

With these additions, the membership of the Council as the RECORD goes to press is as follows:

Constituent members.....	62
Associate members.....	50
Institutional members.....	729
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Total	841

In late November invitations to membership in the Council were extended to the institutions of higher education, school systems, and state departments of education which are eligible for such membership. It is the desire of the Executive Committee that all eligible institutions and organizations become affiliated with the Council, in order that it may be completely representative.

STAFF

Thomas N. Barrows, formerly president of Lawrence College, has accepted the directorship of a project to be undertaken by the Council which will be concerned with aiding schools and colleges to establish accrediting procedures to appraise the educational achievement of service men and women. This will include the granting of credit for various types of educational experiences gained in the armed forces.

Robert D. Quick, who has been serving as a captain in the Army of the United States, associated with the editorial project of the United States Armed Forces Institute, has been appointed manager of publications at the Council. Prior to his Army service Captain Quick was with Houghton Mifflin Company.

Waring M. Hopkins, intern of the National Institute of Public Affairs, is working with the Council through January 1946. The Council now has the services of two unsalaried interns.

Helen C. Hurley, who has served on the staff of the Council in various capacities during the past twenty-five years, was appointed assistant to the president by the Executive Committee at its meeting on October 6.

The following persons have joined the staff of the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, which is being directed by Alonzo G. Grace.

M. M. Chambers, as assistant director and research associate. Dr. Chambers has recently been released from the Army Air Forces, where he served as a major. He was pre-

viously with the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education.

Edward C. Elliott, president emeritus of Purdue University. Dr. Elliott will conduct a study of the training of civilians under the jurisdiction of the various armed services.

Henry C. Herge, formerly commanding officer of the college training program, Wesleyan University; earlier he was supervising principal of the Bellmore, New York, public schools. Mr. Herge will act as assistant director of the study and carry on a study of the college and university training programs.

Robert J. Matthew, formerly captain, Army Air Forces; on leave of absence, College of the City of New York; to do research in the foreign language field.

John R. Miles, formerly lieutenant commander, S(A)T, USNR, Naval Air Test Center, Electronics Test Unit, Patuxent River, Maryland; prior to that he was research associate at Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research. Mr. Miles will study the evaluation methods and procedures used by the armed services.

Dorothy Schaffter, formerly professor of political science at Vassar College and president of Connecticut College for Women. Miss Schaffter is to make a study of the training programs for women in the armed services.

GRANTS

The following new grants have been made to the Council since the publication of the October issue of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*:

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE:

\$ 3,000 toward the expenses of the meeting of the Canada-United States Committee on Education held October 12-14, 1945, and of the meetings of the Executive Committee.

EDWARD W. HAZEN FOUNDATION:

\$ 1,250 for the use of the Committee on Student Personnel Work in the preparation of brochures in the field of student counseling and guidance.

FIELD FOUNDATION:

\$10,000 for the work of the Committee on Education and Social Security. Available for the year beginning October 1, 1945, with the possibility of an extension for any unused portion of the grant to October 1, 1946.

MEETINGS OF STANDING COMMITTEES OF THE COUNCIL

The following Council committees have held meetings since the issuance of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD* in October 1945:

Committee on Education and Social Security, October 3;
Washington

Canada-United States Committee on Education, October
12-14; Cleveland

Committee on Student Personnel Work, October 18-19;
Chicago

Committee on Teacher Education, October 29-30; New
York

Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to
the Federal Government, November 12 and December
10; Washington

Committee on Youth Problems (jointly with the Com-
mittee on the Relationships of Higher Education to
the Federal Government), November 12; Washington

Committee on Measurement and Guidance, November
15-16; New York

Steering committee of the Committee on School Plant
Research, November 28; Washington

Committee on Intergroup Education in Cooperating
Schools, November 30; New York

Committee on Filmstrips and Slide Projects, December
4; Washington

Committee on International Education and Cultural Re-
lations, December 18; Washington

GUIDE TO COLLEGES, UNIVERSITIES, AND
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

Letters in great quantity from men and women in the
armed services asking for information on schools, colleges,

and courses of study have reached the Council office during the past few months. The letters have come from military personnel in the United States, Europe, the South Pacific, Japan, and Korea, and from ships at sea. In addition, men and women recently discharged have come to the office in increasing numbers, seeking advice and assistance.

The Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States, edited for the Council by Carter V. Good of the University of Cincinnati, has been an invaluable aid in answering these inquiries. Several unfortunate delays, including a trucking strike, considerably slowed the distribution of the *Guide* to the military services, Council members, and prospective purchasers. However, copies are now in the hands of educational advisers in the armed services, the Veterans Administration counselors, and others. Members of the Council have each received one copy.

THE UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

The Council's Committee on International Education and Cultural Relations and the Liaison Committee for International Education met jointly on December 18, 1945, to discuss the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) which was formulated in London during the first half of November, and to plan a program of action to acquaint individuals in American education and citizens generally with its organization and provisions. A group from the United States delegation which participated in the London Conference, technicians from the Department of State, the United States Office of Education, and members of the education press met with the two committees.

The Council has published the constitution of UNESCO in its entirety as Bulletin No. 93 of *Higher Education and National Affairs*, so that it may receive as wide a circulation as possible. This distribution will reach more than five thousand persons.

STUDENT DEFERMENT

Following earlier conversations, a conference was held by members of the Council staff with representatives of the Selective Service System, the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion, and other government agencies regarding the previous recommendations of the Council for student deferment.

The Selective Service System postponed induction of students enrolled in colleges and universities for the semester or quarter in which they become eighteen years of age. On November 26, 1945, it issued a revision of Local Board Memorandum No. 115, granting deferment for men who had been previously deferred on the basis of occupation in order that they might return to colleges and universities.

The Council has submitted a questionnaire to 110 colleges and universities to determine the number of individuals who would be involved if postponement in induction for eighteen-year-olds was continued through the current academic year. In cooperation with the American Association of Junior Colleges, it is also securing similar data from a sampling of these institutions. In addition, through cooperation with the Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council and the professional associations, a quick study is being made of shortages in these professional fields and the bearing of such data upon student deferment. With this information in hand further representations will be made through appropriate government channels for further extension in student deferment.

HOUSING

In early November a sampling survey of housing for veterans on college and university campuses was completed. This study and a summary of the information in *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*, made by the National Housing Administration, revealed a rapidly increasing shortage, which is reaching acute proportions in many institutions. Many conversations have

been held with representatives of the National Housing Administration, the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion, and with individual members of Congress in an effort to obtain immediate relief (1) by passage of an appropriation by the Congress to implement Title V of the Lanham Act (to move temporary housing to areas of acute shortage, including colleges and universities) and (2) by having the Army, Navy, and other government agencies declare such housing as excess or surplus so that it may be moved to colleges or occupied by college students.

The Council has also been actively interested in the permanent housing program, and Francis J. Brown of the Council staff is serving on the National Housing Advisory Committee. Testimony has been presented to the Senate Committee on Banking and Finance urging immediate action.

REVISION OF PUBLIC LAW 346

The Council has been continuously active in pressing for revision of Public Law 346 (the GI bill). Francis J. Brown testified before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs which was considering the revision, and many personal contacts have been established and maintained. One of the major points for which the Council has worked is the elimination of deductions from a possible future bonus of funds paid for veterans' education.

ARMY AND NAVY ROTC

Representatives of the Army and Navy met with the Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government to discuss both the interim ROTC programs and the long-range programs. The Council has been glad of this opportunity for close cooperation with the Army and Navy in these plans which so definitely affect colleges and universities.

COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING

On November 12 the Committee on Youth Problems met with the Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education

to the Federal Government to draft a statement concerning compulsory military training. This statement formed the basis of testimony presented to the House Committee on Military Affairs by George F. Zook. The specific recommendations which Dr. Zook made were as follows:

1. That House Resolution 325 asking for an immediate international agreement eliminating compulsory military service from the policies and practices of all nations be given serious consideration and favorably reported by this Committee.

2. That the Congress or the President appoint a national commission to study every aspect of total defense and make a report prior to any action on the question of compulsory military training.

3. That definite quotas of minimum military needs to assure adequate national defense be determined and that every effort be made to meet such needs by voluntary enlistment.

4. That beyond such measures we concentrate upon the fundamental and vital issue of world organization to preserve peace and security by strengthening the existing United Nations Organization.

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The Educational Record

April 1946

A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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Bridging the Gulf between Liberal and Vocational Education*

By ORDWAY TEAD

THE DEMAND OF citizens in general and of parents in particular that the education of our children shall equip them in a vocational way is increasing. It is confined neither to any class in society nor to any section of our country. It is a normal demand, usually shared by the young people themselves, that at whatever point their formal education ceases, they be qualified to enter some fairly specific employment which is consonant with the educational level at which they are leaving school.

In response to this demand and this sense of need, the American educational system in the past fifty years has developed with a commendable power of adaptation, even if the results are now somewhat confused. New types of institutions have multiplied to an amazing extent. How wise and how valuable all this has been, it is part of the purpose of this paper to consider.

The vocational high schools of various kinds, the land-grant colleges, the state universities with their various sub-colleges, the rapidly expanding junior colleges, the engineering colleges, the normal colleges, the specialized graduate schools (now far more varied than merely schools of law, medicine,

* This article was originally presented in a more extended form as a paper before the Conference on Science, Philosophy, and Religion at Columbia University, September 1945.

and theology)—all these and others are attracting young people who in an earlier day would have enrolled in a four-year liberal college if they had aspired to go to school at all after they were fourteen or fifteen years of age.

The consequences of this development as affecting our conception of liberal education at both secondary and college levels have been many, have been important, and are in need of fresh appraisal. Such institutions as "academic" high schools and four-year liberal arts colleges are increasingly on the defensive. Indeed, their relative growth is not to be compared with that of the other types of institutions just enumerated. Teachers of liberal subjects are also naturally on the defensive as to the what, the why, and the how of their individual curricular offerings.

In the more specialized institutions, on the other hand, we are also witnessing a sensible reaction which has taken the form of a widespread and wholesome scrutinizing of their curriculums. This has arisen out of a fear that there has been too much vocational and not enough broadly conceived liberal education in the offerings they have made. Engineering and teachers colleges, for example, are today in a highly self-critical state as a result of their having played down general education in the past quarter-century in favor of rather narrowly specialized courses.

Junior colleges have been trying with more or less success to assure an equal balance between their vocational and their cultural course-offerings. Vocational high schools are recurrently being exhorted by their friends both within and without the fold to include more general subjects in line with the principles and practice of the leaders in this field, among which the Metropolitan High School in New York City may be mentioned as an outstanding exemplar.

High schools of every kind are being widely criticized as "deplorably inefficient." Such a long-time student of the problem as David Tyden reflects a growing body of opinion when he says, "Nowhere have the American states as yet provided adequate systems of *genuine vocational educations* for

our thousands of young adults who cannot enter professional vocations."¹

What and why is this sharp separation between two kinds of education? Has there been an unwitting growing-apart of something which must now and for the future be helped to grow substantially together again? Can we wisely continue with a total pattern of education which separates so sharply education for employment from education for everything else?

The time is past due to restate our American educational aims with special reference to a wiser integration of the vocational facet of these aims with our total hopes. This paper will outline briefly the over-all area of public concern, but it will give particular attention to this problem as it is posed at the level of the four-year college. The time has come when practical suggestions can be made as to how the liberal arts college can face more adequately the vocational demand. Some suggestions can be effectively adapted to other educational institutions, which can result in a far greater unification between liberal and vocational objectives.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

I shall assume that we agree that we aspire to educate *all* our young people to be good *individuals*, good *citizens*, good *family members*, good *workers*.

The aim, we are substantially agreed, should be to give each person, when he or she is ready for it and recognizes the need for it, as much education as he can profit by in terms of total ability, background, aptitudes, and expressed interests.

Our kind of society—a democratic society—needs from no fewer than *all* its oncoming youth the cultivation of capacities to: think logically and soundly and therefore attack problems in that analytical way which leads to productive conclusions; communicate accurately both in oral and in written speech; appreciate the world of art sensitively and with some discrimination as to aesthetic values; deal with people in personal

¹ See "Greater Tasks for Secondary Schools," *School and Society*, July 14, 1945, p. 17.

relationships in a manner which will be deft, considerate, and friendly, and also mingle in group associations amiably and assume the responsibility of democratic leadership or the alertness of a democratic follower; understand the workings of the natural world and those procedures of scientific method by which our mastery of that world has been assured; become aware realistically of the pervasive political and economic forces at work in contemporary society; know what kinds of experience and standards have been found valuable in human experience; care deeply, stand for, and strive for such values as have been established; and last, but by no means least, be able to fill with competence a useful position in the world of work.

It is important to observe with respect to these educational objectives that many of them suggest and imply the development of skills and character traits which are valuable, if not essential, in a considerable fraction of the world's jobs. And if the ability to attack problems, communicate clearly, deal effectively with people, know something of the scientific method, know something of the permanent values in living—if all of this is a desirable common possession of human beings as workers irrespective of the job, then the first vital point at which any sharp separation between so-called liberal and so-called vocational aims is less important and less clear than has often been assumed.

Another conventional way of stating this dichotomy has been to assume that there are those citizens who qualify for liberal education and those who are more properly equipped for a practical or vocational education. This completely misconceives the problem of education for a democratic society.

In order to understand the true meaning of cultural or general education and its necessary vocational accompaniments, we must get a clear picture of the vocational needs of our society as related to requisite educational preparation and to the actual distribution of human talents, capacities, and interests. In times past general education has been conceived as synonymous with liberal or cultural education both in terms

of outlook and subject matter and has had a retrospective emphasis. Indeed, it was limited too often to influences in and heritages from the preindustrial era.

Whitehead was one of the first to differ sharply with this viewpoint, saying:

The insistence in the Platonic culture on disinterested intellectual appreciation is a psychological error. Action and our implication in the transition of events amid the inevitable bond of cause to effect are fundamental. An education which strives to divorce intellectual or aesthetic life from these fundamental facts carries with it the decadence of civilization. Essentially culture should be for action, and its effect should be to divest labour from the association of aimless toil.²

Only in recent years have we become clearly conscious of an American culture as such and become eager for the appreciation and imparting of the values which it embraces. Even here the emphasis has tended to be on our cultural characteristics as manifested prior to the twentieth century. From a cultural point of view we are only beginning to describe, analyze, and evaluate that rapidly expanding part of our American life which is rooted in the production and distribution of goods and services and which is the result of the impact of technology and electric power upon our way of life. All this helps to constitute, qualify, and modify our culture, and we are both illiterate about ourselves and our times and impotent to grapple with the social and psychic forces at work *if we are without self-consciousness of this culture*. These facts are slowly dawning on us all as affecting the content of cultural education. In short, our conception of the cultural heritage to be transmitted should have *added* the contemporary phases to its present historical emphasis. This will include (though not here further elaborated) emphasis upon the global or universalistic phases of modern life, brought into prominence by the present reality of a truly world society with its plural cultures which must establish a sympathetic working entente if peace is to be maintained.

² A. N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929), p. 73.

The consequence of the retrospective view of culture has been to make it a precious, thin, sublimated concern which equipped those thus educated with no ability to cope with the life into which they moved after leaving school or college, either in general terms of social controls or of individual occupations. Indeed, it all seemed to put a premium upon detachment, aloofness, and unrelatedness to the workaday world.

The important exception to this generalization was, of course, the value found in the typical liberal college curriculum as preprofessional training for the law, medicine, theology, and teaching. For these callings, colleges have always been prevocational training centers. They have been so without apology, presumably because they comprised the aristocracy of employments, toward which college instruction could be slanted without any taint of being too mundane, too practical, or too materialistic.

Meanwhile, as the conventional liberal college has studiously kept aloof from the world of work with the exceptions just noted, the pressure of demand and need has brought vocational education into great prominence and popularity at both the secondary and collegiate levels. In consequence, the educational problem which needs to be faced now is whether the *social effectiveness* of this vocational education assures the turning-out of young people as well equipped as citizens and human beings as they are as workers.

Subordinate to this, but equally a part of it, is the question as to whether young people's choices among the educational offerings (or their failure to choose and their resulting entry into the world of work at some particular point) are governed by personal factors largely economic. If so, how can the decisions concerning the type of education selected be shaped by factors of social and vocational fitness and not by the accident of the inadequacy of family income? It is clear that there will be no sufficient general education for all until vocational and other educational choices (supported by scholarships, free tuition and other devices) are made on grounds

of total suitability for the given vocation and not of financial pressure.

A little acknowledged and even unwitting segregation has thus arisen of those who after ten to thirteen years of school go out—often under economic pressure—to do the “humbler” parts of the world's work and those who go on for another term of years and secure the employments which entail greater social esteem and material reward. Perhaps it is inevitable that all this gives rise to a certain amount of social snobbery and class division which approaches class consciousness. But what is not inevitable and is highly undesirable is that the total education of any young person should not have included in it as much attention to liberal or general subject matter as is required to produce a population of adults who are capable of being responsible citizens of a democratic state.

JOBS AND TALENTS SOCIALLY VIEWED

It is thus important to look briefly at the vocations and jobs in our society. There is, of course, a hierarchy of employments from the point of view of the amount of intelligence, training, and special personal qualities which they require. We do not know whether the distribution of jobs in respect to the talent required corresponds to the familiar “bell-shaped curve” in which the distribution of intelligence (I.Q.) is usually depicted. But we do know that out of over 3,000 occupations in the *Dictionary of Occupations* published by the United States Department of Labor, there is a wide spread of the intelligence, aptitudes, interests, and skills called for.

We know too, with increasing clarity, that all employments require certain character traits, which we would like to assume every applicant in the world of work possesses. These have to do with habits of promptness, thoroughness, alertness, concentration, ability to work with people, adaptability, and the like. It may be true that the proportion of positions requiring these general traits *primarily* is increasing as the mechanizing trend progresses. It may further be true that

for a considerable fraction of industrial and mercantile jobs, the employer *should* want chiefly of newcomers at work good character traits. To these he can add in a few weeks' time, by his own employer-supported training program, the specialized and applied skills his business peculiarly requires. In short, an analytical view of the actual employment scene may give the lie to the notion that an elaboration of narrow vocational instruction should be offered publicly to young people prior to eighteen years of age, by which time they can have been exposed adequately to a flexible and attractive program of general education. Put in another way, some employers, parents, and young people themselves are surely misconceiving what they ought to expect from public education before the eighteenth year.

The problem of kinds of work to be done matched against those who are to do it needs to be confronted equally realistically at the college level. Testimony from business is clear that its demands are far less for highly specialized business training in college than is generally supposed. If we exclude the technical training for engineering positions, we find that business in hiring college graduates is looking for potential managerial capacity. And the qualities valued by business leaders—confirmed by their repeated assurances—are: ability to attack problems in an orderly and penetrating fashion; ability to deal with problems that require a grasp of current economic, social, and political forces and trends; ability to deal diplomatically and graciously with people; ability to apply general knowledge which coordinates material and human factors wisely in discrete workaday situations. Good habits and attitudes of persistence, thoroughness, resourcefulness, personal integrity and trustworthiness, curiosity, and energetic drive—these are the capacities needed and valued.

All this is not to deny the educational and social values of graduate courses in business, public service callings, and other semiprofessional careers. It is rather to emphasize that a liberal arts course freshly conceived in relation to the interests of students and the present needs of society can have genuine

vocational value (as it has already abundantly proved itself to have) without extending its instruction into areas of vocational techniques. It is becoming increasingly true that leaders who are generalizers, integrators, and synthesizers are needed in business and public service, perhaps even more acutely than limited technicians are needed. Such leaders can in the future as in the past come from among the graduates of liberal arts colleges. It is not a play on words but the accurate prescription of a need to say that colleges have in the future to train more *specialists in generalization*. And for this kind of capacity the liberal college at its best and with the newer emphasis within the general course can fulfill this vocational assignment.

In other words, there is needed a re-fusing and reuniting of educational objectives so that every student becomes the best total person he can be as of the age when simultaneously he leaves school and becomes ready to make a start at an employment which is consonant with his special abilities. Granted that there is a body of education necessary for the art of living, which is everyone's privilege to have and the duty of the state to supply, I would say that this stage of educational growth is reached approximately by the end of the second year of high school, and explicit vocational courses should not begin until then.

At every point where this explicit vocationalizing starts, presumably it should not be allowed to take more than a quarter of the time. This would be increased to one-half when the general education as of that age level had been more satisfactorily covered. General and semivocational courses below the college level might thus run parallel through the curriculum until the student's eighteenth or nineteenth birthday is reached. At this time it could be assumed safely that more than 50 percent of the instruction could be vocational because it was building upon an adequate prior general education.

Concretely, this should mean an obliterating of the sharp distinction between different kinds of secondary schools

(academic, general, commercial, trade, or vocational) in favor of secondary schools with a common core of general education up to around seventeen to eighteen years of age, with increasing specialization in the last two secondary years.

The curriculum should be flexible, providing varied and diversified methods of instruction related to individual student differences. Shop work, manual activities, group projects (which are now often extra-curricular in nature) can be the best possible instruments of general education for certain students if the *aim* of general education is held clearly in view by the teacher. General education does not imply solely verbal, textbook, or intellectual methods.

Similarly for those students who are at the college level, general education would be full time in the first two years. Then, some specialization would follow, increasing until the fifth year would be predominantly vocational training.

The discussion thus far has assumed the usual pattern of time distribution among elementary, high school, and college, that is, an 8-4-4 prescription. This pattern is so general that it may be confusing to inject the mention of another pattern. The fact is that a new prescription is gaining in favor. It is important to take note of it here because it may well improve the organization of time and subject matter as affecting general *vs.* vocational studies in a more practical way than the more familiar 8-4-4 spread. The so-called 6-4-4 plan, which is beyond the experimental stage in a few communities (of which Pasadena, California, is a good example), takes two years off the elementary school, and the student enters college two years earlier. This makes it possible for graduate or professional instruction to begin at what would be in the conventional scheduling the beginning of the junior year of college. I venture the prophecy that the 6-4-4 arrangement will be found increasingly to be an effective basis for a sensible reallocation of time for the best interests of the student and society, and one which can place general education at the heart of the curriculum to best advantage and supply it for all in a more practical way.

INTERPENETRATION OF OBJECTIVES

If a unification of educational objectives and processes (in contrast to today's sharp separations) is accepted as sound and necessary, the first question to arise is how best to assure the interplay of cultural and vocational influences, interests, and emphases. The problem must be considered at three different levels: (1) Teacher-training institutions, school boards, and boards of trustees must restate educational objectives and policies. (2) General and special courses in the curriculum of each student must be consciously interrelated. (3) The cultural and vocational aspects of each unit course must be unified.

The restatement of directives and policies is actually the theme of this paper. We need agreement that a democracy must afford for all its youth up to eighteen years of age a common core of general education designed to prepare each of them for family life, citizenship, personal orientation, and at the same time for a vocation. This vocational education should enter the curriculum only when general education is well on its way to conclusion in the formal school program.

A parenthetical but important comment may be injected here to the effect that we can no longer assume that the student who leaves school at eighteen years of age has all the education necessary to cope with all the responsibilities of life. Our public educational policy will have to assure attractive, varied, and appealing offerings at the adult level. We must be prepared to supply to adults fresh material and training for family responsibilities, leisure time activities, further vocational training, and general intellectual maturation, which they find they lack and want.

If the objectives set forth in this paper are to be translated into operating actuality, they must be subscribed to and taught by teachers colleges and be propagated by educational leaders generally. Reviewing and reshaping educational objectives is the Number One task.

The second consideration is the interrelationship to be attained between general and special course-offerings in the

curriculum of each individual school and student. This comes down in part to pedagogical method. Concretely, teachers of the humanities, the social studies, and the natural sciences have the duty of orienting their subject matter to its vocational possibilities. A secondary aim for all teachers is to convey a sense of "how my course relates to the world of work, how it is used there, where its matter has application there." The teacher of every subject can remind the class frequently that his subject matter does have vocational meaning in *some* direction. This does not mean that every general course must have obvious and direct vocational contexts. But if it is wise to include a given course in the curriculum, the chances are excellent that it impinges upon our operating economy and dominant culture and that this relationship can be made explicit.

An equally important fact of all general instruction is that the by-products of good learning—lucid expression, adequacy of communication—should be striven for consciously. These should be aims of *every* course.

Critical appraisal of facts, conscious use of the problem-solving method (the scientific method), elegance of execution, persistence in attack, thoroughness of effort, promptness, cheerfulness, friendliness in human dealings—all of these are rightful by-products of study with every good teacher of every subject. They should be consciously held in view by every teacher as necessary and valuable aspects of the total learning experience. The relevance of this emphasis upon by-product learning is that the total way the student approaches and handles *any work* is invaluable when it comes to handling his vocational specialty. Technical workmanship at the drafting board or at the operating table, for example, is compounded of character traits as much as it is of specific technical mastery if total performance is to be satisfactory. Thus, every good teacher is always helping the student build into his equipment the essential qualities of a good worker in the moral and social sense, although these may not be directly vocational or technical requisites.

Conversely, the vocational teacher at his best at the secondary, college, or professional school levels will orient the technical job into its total social, functional, and cultural setting. Every vocation has its history, science, artistry, its great figures, its rationale, and ethics. In short, it has a general bearing on life as a whole. All of this the student has a right to become aware of; and the teacher, therefore, has a duty of interpretation.

As a corollary, it becomes obvious that cultural and vocational teachers need to *know each other better* in terms of the possible connections and interactions of subject matter. The cultural teacher has to know more, and indeed often to care more, about the bearing of the world of work upon his subject. And the vocational teacher has to become more interested in the cultural setting, functional bearing, and social controls that do or should orient his special skill into the total social scene. This may sound like a counsel of perfection, but it is a kind of cross-fertilizing with which teacher education in the future must be more consciously involved.

This means that it is no longer possible to separate into watertight compartments subject matter which liberates and subject matter which improves skill and working competence. Education is one process, whether it be of the hand, the eye, or the head, and it has to be restored to greater unity of handling and of instruction by educational specialists.

The third point elaborates the previous point by asking that each liberal arts teacher have ready to use in each course he offers the answer to these questions:

1. What contemporary occupations are illumined as to background, social significance, and functional effectiveness by any knowledge derived from my subject?
2. What occupations make direct use of my subject; how; are the methods general or specific?
3. If my subject has little or no direct occupational relevance, what avocational significance attaches to it?

Indeed, at the college level the teacher should press home to himself the full force of the issue by going on with his self-

examination with such questions as: What do people with college educations have to do in the world to earn a living today? Where and how are the graduates of my courses for the past ten years occupied, and with what results on their minds and souls? What do I know about the hour-by-hour content of the world's callings upon which so many hours are expended by former students? Does not my very exemption from labor in the business world place some burden upon me to be able to make a connection for students between what I am doing and what they will be doing, between what happens in my course and what happens in the world outside? In answering, as every teacher should several times in each semester, every student's tacit question, "Why should I take your course?" am I able to include in my reply any suggestion of relevance to livelihood?

Many teachers will find that they do not have the answers to these inquiries. And the field work and exploration necessary to discover the answers should have salutary value. Questions along these lines would almost certainly help the teacher fulfill one condition of successful education where, as Whitehead says, ". . . there must always be a certain freshness in the knowledge dealt with. It must be either new in itself or invested with some novelty of application to the new world of new times. Knowledge does not keep any better than fish. Somehow it must come to the student, as it were, just drawn out of the sea and with the freshness of its immediate importance."

I repeat that the importance of college subjects is not primarily their relation to any narrow occupational usefulness that might be imputed to them. But every subject must be invested with *importance* by the teacher. Ideas are important because of their bearing upon the significance of the world's work. In fact, cultural study has far more direct vocational value than professors usually appreciate.

Already in much subject matter a breakdown of the barrier between cultural and vocational is beginning to occur, and it can occur more frequently if educational counselors

will give the right guidance on course selection to students and on course orientation to teachers. Many English courses, many speech courses, much psychology, economics, and history, to name but a few, are preprofessional for numerous callings. Do students realize this? Do teachers grasp this? If not, why not? The answer, I suspect, is in the unawareness of college faculty folk of what goes on in the vocational world.

The vocational justification is, of course, only one among several important reasons for offering courses. But it is the justification which has not been deemed quite culturally respectable in the liberal colleges and therefore has been ignored. Its elevation to a position of being an explicit objective will be a notable advance.

This is not the place to offer the details of how the college teacher can gain knowledge of the occupational relations of his subject. New techniques are being evolved under the new sense of this need. One item, however, deserves emphasis, namely, the use of vacation periods for study, visitation, interviews, and actual job-getting and job-holding efforts specifically designed to enlarge the teacher's firsthand knowledge of the relevancies of his subject to today's life. I know one institution where it is becoming a point of honor for professors to devote their sabbatical years to getting paid jobs of a nonteaching nature in some field related to their major competence. Need it be emphasized that the freshness of attack on subject matter which such teachers are certain to bring back to their classes is greatly to be desired.

Similarly, vocational teachers of courses such as engineering and business at the college level need to be as concerned with the "why" as with the "what," with the problem of values as with the problems of operation, with issues of social control of techniques, and of scientific advances. Vocational teachers are sending students directly into both corporations and the professional world. What of standards of ethical practice? What of the place and fruition of vocational associations and worker unions? What of the professional worker's status in

a corporation, whether as a paid hireling or as a responsible party to collective dealing with management?

These are but a few of the issues which are part of the broader view of vocational instruction. They are calculated to assure that trained workers come through a kind of educational experience in which their personal and group relation to the management and ownership interests is sophisticated enough to lessen the chances of the grosser forms of exploitation being practiced upon them. If we are actually (and in part legally) building up within our economic life something which may be referred to as a constitutional economic government, it will be essential that the presumptive citizens of that government know how to conduct themselves in respect to their responsibilities and rights. Thus far vocational as well as general education has soft-pedalled confronting this whole delicate but dynamic area. In short, vocational teachers at all levels must surround and support the training they offer with a realistic grasp of the total milieu in which that work is to take place. And that realism has to include a democratic bias in all its economic implications.

If it be asked what there is in this program of revised educational policy to assure that our liberal colleges will in the future enable their graduates to be able to "do something" in the world of work, the answer has several aspects.

First, a far better job of giving vocational information and guidance admittedly must be done. Space limitations preclude expansion of this vital point here.

Second, the values of the alternating study-work program—initiated at the University of Cincinnati and developed at Antioch College most explicitly for the general student—have to be more widely realized and applied. Summer work (or winter field-work periods) under the guidance of the college should help here. Thus only can the field-work experience help young people find out what they do and do not want to do and what they are and are not able to do.

Third, it has to be realized by students (and parents) that for many jobs the qualities developed in good general edu-

cation are those which fit them best for work, especially as we look at the supervisory and executive levels.

Fourth, college teachers must realize that in so far as they are training their students to become teachers of their specialty (and there is rightfully a good deal of this), such training will produce good teachers only if a good deal more than advanced, specialized subject matter is required and is learned.

OBJECTIVES

The conclusion of this analysis is that the break between general and vocational education must be greatly narrowed.

Vocational education in the narrow, specialized sense should not begin until a foundation in a socially oriented general education is assured for *all* young people. When such vocational education is begun, it should not, until the top reaches of professional study are undertaken, be dissociated from some continuing exposure to general subjects keyed to the maturing intellectual interests.

Teachers, both general and vocational, must see their tasks as more nearly identical than is now typically the case. The teacher of liberal arts needs to know the contemporary world better. And the teacher of vocational subjects has to be culturally more richly grounded.

The unified and over-all objective of educating whole persons has to be restored to centrality, both in the training of teachers and in the shaping of educational policy by those responsible for curriculum building.

We will get good workers for our kind of society only when we qualify all our youth to enter that society as persons and citizens no less than as prospective job-holders.

Christian Education in Areas of Tension

By EDWIN E. AUBREY and JOHN W. THOMAS

IT HAS BECOME clear that the church has a very practical stake in all that affects human life, as well as heavy moral responsibility for a situation which it, the custodian of Christian principles, has failed to prevent.

It has, therefore, addressed itself to the task of showing the application of Christian principles in human relationships, of awakening the social consciousness of its members and the public, and of taking action itself in tension areas.

In order to do this, the church has employed three main methods: prophetic utterances, educational programs involving fact-finding and Christian interpretation of the facts, and intergroup contacts which lead toward reconciliation.

With these methods at its disposal the church has concerned itself in three major social areas: interclass understanding, or economic justice; interracial understanding, or human brotherhood; and international understanding, or world peace. In all of these, education has been the foundation, social and political action the method, and reconciliation the desired outcome.

The question seems pertinent: How has the church organized its forces to function in these fields and to use the techniques outlined toward achievement of the desired goals?

Through the sermon the church lets its voice be heard in its community. Denominational gatherings, interdenominational organizations, and ecclesiastical councils, through resolutions and pronouncements, speak for larger groups. Such pronouncements frequently have wide influence. Quoted by newspapers and periodicals, they set a standard by which the thinking of people can be influenced and judged. Letters to public officials on questions regarding which the church feels a legitimate concern have also been used by denominational

and interdenominational bodies. Whether the question is world government or the poll tax, government authorities have become aware that the church has its ear to the ground and no longer can be considered as preoccupied with its own affairs. Finally, the publication and distribution of literature has become a sizable business in many denominations and interdenominational bodies. Publications range from fliers and brief pamphlets to detailed reports and well-written periodicals, and their wide distribution suggests a large, though unmeasurable, influence.

The church, however, has gone beyond prophetic utterances in its attempt to educate its constituency and the public. It has carried on an aggressive educational program. In an increasing number of churches the literature rack holds a prominent place, together with the bulletin board on which is displayed not only announcements of church meetings but also broadsides and posters on a wide variety of social issues.

Most of the denominational publishing houses provide courses and discussion outlines on social questions for youth and adult groups. These are used in church schools and summer conferences. They furnish the basis for round tables and forums, which are becoming increasingly popular in local churches.

In all of this, there is a growing and encouraging emphasis upon getting the facts. Although Christian principles are applied in seeking solutions, it is widely recognized that accurate information must be secured before a solution can be attempted.

IN THE AREA OF INDUSTRIAL TENSION

In the field of labor relations the church is deeply concerned. The Federal Council's Department of Christian Social Relations has an industrial division which is constantly studying the field of industrial relations, making contacts, bringing the church and labor together, experimenting with techniques for reconciliation, publishing literature, and making recommendations for study and action to local groups.

In addition, it renders valuable service in coordinating and uniting the efforts at social action made by the several denominations. Special projects of the department include providing programs and speakers for the observance of Labor Day, organizing informal and good-will conferences (later described), and promoting church and labor education.

Of the latter, one of the most outstanding examples is the Industrial Relations Institute for Church Leadership held at the University of Wisconsin for the past three summers. This Institute, which runs for six weeks, attracts church and labor leaders from all over the country. It discusses problems which these groups have in common, as well as their points of difference, and offers guidance in the discovery of a creative solution. The Institute is sponsored jointly by the University of Wisconsin and the industrial division of the Federal Council of Churches.

Another approach of the church to this problem is the "labor church." These are few in number—perhaps a score throughout the United States—because "labor" is scattered throughout the churches rather than being segregated in a special type of religious institution. Nevertheless, these few, of which the Labor Temple in New York and the Mullenbach Industrial Institute in Chicago are examples, have served as laboratories for new methods of bringing together labor, management, government, and church leaders, for exploration of their agreements and solution of their differences.

Two other institutions—unofficial in their relationship to the organized church—which are attempting to bring religion and labor together are the National Religion and Labor Foundation, with headquarters in New Haven, and the People's Institute of Applied Religion in Detroit.

The former is based on a philosophy of reconciliation and is attempting to interpret the church and labor to each other. It works through institutes, conferences, and discussion groups and has made a real contribution toward mutual understanding.

The Detroit organization is based on the philosophy of

class conflict. It reaches and serves workers of the more fundamentalist type and has rendered an important service in improving attitudes toward minority groups and organized labor among many of the "sect-type" preachers of Detroit.

In addition to efforts by the industrial division of the Federal Council, and by independent organizations motivated by religiously engendered social concern, local churches, church councils (interdenominational), and denominational bodies are actively at work using the three techniques mentioned. One interesting project is the support of an industrial chaplain.

Industrial chaplains go into manufacturing plants to conduct religious services, to offer personal counsel, and, when possible, to sit in on disputes. Here, it seems, Mahomet goes to the mountain! The task of the chaplain, however, is complicated by the fact that he is likely to be suspected by labor of being a spy for management, or vice versa. The solution to this problem seems to lie in his employment by a council of churches rather than by a company or a union. This has been tried with success in Quincy, Massachusetts.

An important influence in both labor relations and race relations is the educational trip, when a group visits a tension area. Points visited may include factories, labor union headquarters, Chamber of Commerce offices, consumer cooperatives, slums, housing projects, and the like. Such trips are sponsored by churches, local interdenominational church councils, or denominational groups. They are usually planned to give information, offer an interpretation, and provide an atmosphere in which sympathetic understanding may develop. The well-known Reconciliation Trips for many years planned and conducted by Clarence Howell in New York City furnish an excellent example of this technique. In contrast to sight-seeing tours, these trips took people into Harlem, Chinatown, "Syria in New York," Greek Orthodox Churches, labor centers, and the like, as sympathetic learners and brought them away with quickened appreciation of their fellows.

Luncheon or dinner meetings are often held at which groups with diverse interests sit down to share viewpoints, with good results. The following report of meetings in Detroit, by Edgar DeWitt Jones in the *Christian Century* for January 16, 1946, is illustrative:

In the Church and Industry Supper Conference, forty clergymen of the Catholic, Protestant and Jewish faiths meet with a similar group of industrialists at a monthly supper gathering. Last year these meetings were held at various industrial plants and the program was presented by the industrialists, with members of the clergy directing the discussion. This year the plan is for the clergy to sponsor three meetings, one each under Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish auspices, with the program directed by the ministers, while the other three meetings are to be in the hands of the industrialists. The first of these meetings was held December 17, under Catholic direction.

The Religion and Labor Fellowship assembles at luncheon at least once a month at the Central Y.W.C.A. Labor representatives of the C.I.O. and the A.F. of L., with ministers and laymen participating in the discussion, insure lively meetings from which some definite good accrues. . . . The conferences held thus far have proved highly profitable, and a better understanding has been reached.

This technique was also used during the mayoralty campaign in Detroit, when the city Church Federation held luncheon conferences to which the candidates, together with representative church leaders, were invited. At these, both candidates made reports as to their policies and answered questions. It proved a good method for disseminating accurate information and educating that segment of the electorate which the churches could reach.

Of even greater significance is the "informal conference"; a technique initiated and sponsored by the industrial division of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. This is a gathering at which representatives of capital, labor, consumers, Negroes (or other minority groups), and church representatives sit down together in some "neutral" environment (such as a YMCA) and spend an evening discussing their common problems. These meetings are completely in-

formal. No minutes are taken, and it is pledged that neither the meeting nor what is said will receive any publicity. No resolutions are adopted; no new organization is formed; no contributions are asked; no literature is distributed. These promises, given in advance, do much to put representatives at ease. The simple rules—that everyone be completely frank and completely friendly—create the desired atmosphere.

Such conferences have been held in many tension areas and have produced impressive results in understanding. James Myers, secretary of the industrial division of the Department of Christian Social Relations of the Federal Council of Churches says:

Perhaps the most striking incident occurred in an Informal Conference in an industrial city in the East, when a Negro pastor described how practically impossible it was for a Negro to secure employment except in menial positions, no matter how capable, educated, and well-trained he might be. A sense of personal and community sin fell upon the group. Various aspects were discussed, including attitudes of employers, unions, churches and the public. No resolutions were adopted, no action was taken. But a few days later one of the prominent employers who had been present, telephoned the Negro pastor and asked him to recommend eight colored workmen, and they all got the skilled jobs and high wages to which they were entitled.

Such groups can, and often do, hold a series of meetings or engage in community projects. In any case, they send enlightened individuals into tension areas to disseminate understanding.

This technique for social education has been expanded into what is known as "the good-will conference." The industrial division of the Federal Council has been responsible for this development also. The good-will conference retains the informality of the informal conference, but covers a wider geographical area and takes a longer time. Within the last six months eighteen such conferences have been held in Michigan, initiated by the Michigan Council of Churches and Christian Education, in cooperation with more than fourteen other agencies. Their avowed purpose was "to bring together the

community representatives of the major occupational groups in each area, such as: Labor, Industry, Business, Farming, Education, Social Work, for the development of good-will and mutual understanding at points of tension and conflict, frankly facing together both mutual and divergent problems, in a Christ-like atmosphere, and in the spirit of Christ."

These conferences were held as week-end camps where discussions under able leadership were conducted by the round-table method. Five or six sessions were possible in the time available. The same guarantees as those made to representatives at informal conferences put conferees at ease. From the possible discussion themes proposed, each group could choose the one which seemed most pertinent or could suggest its own. As a result of this policy the needs of each group could be met.

These conferences fulfilled their function of promoting community good will and reducing human tensions.

In addition to these relatively brief contacts with other individuals and their problems, young people may now go into tension areas for a period of weeks or months to study problems at first hand and help with their solution. This is possible through work camps or, as they are sometimes called, "summer service projects." Initiated by the American Friends Service Committee, the plan has been adopted by several Protestant denominations. The pattern is very simple. A group of young people under wise adult guidance go into the chosen area, live cooperatively, give voluntary service in some project for community welfare (playground construction or direction, work in vacation church schools or settlement houses, and the like), become acquainted with the people, study their problems, and offer recreational leadership. This technique, successfully used in many places over a period of years, has proved its value in educating both the volunteers and the communities into which they go and in reducing intergroup tension.

Reconciliation as a function of the church has been carried forward more specifically in industrial communities during

critical periods such as strikes, when churches under courageous leadership have invited representatives of manager and employer groups to sit down with the minister and a few laymen to talk their problems out in a Christian atmosphere. Although, obviously, strikes cannot be settled in this way, progress toward mutual respect and understanding can be made, and churches can refute the accusation of other-worldliness by demonstrating concern for social reconciliation.

THE TENSION IN RACE RELATIONS

Believing that understanding between persons tends to decrease friction, many churches are encouraging intergroup contacts. Pulpit exchange between Negro and white churches or between Protestant churches and Jewish synagogues are becoming increasingly frequent. Intergroup meetings, social gatherings, and conferences perform a useful function. Interpretation of customs, problems, and attitudes by one group to another often leads to fruitful joint experiences of fellowship and worship.

Here again the churches are at work on the local church, community, and national levels. Local churches, in response to the vision of their leadership and the problems of their communities, are functioning effectively in this field. Education from the pulpit and through courses, pamphlets, and visual aids continues. Interracial youth and women's meetings, ministerial meetings, forums, and mass meetings are becoming increasingly common. Participation in the activities of interracial organizations within communities provides individuals an opportunity to put their theories into practice.

Community church councils frequently have race relations committees to study local problems and make recommendations. Such a committee within the women's division of the Greater New York Federation of Churches worked on such problems as the employment of Negroes as saleswomen in department stores and admission of Negroes to a housing project erected with public funds. Other groups have worked on problems of health, discrimination in the use of public

recreational facilities, and care of the small children of employed mothers. In addition, they have, of course, used pronouncements, resolutions, and group contacts as methods of educating the public.

Many denominational bodies, in addition to their continuing educational programs, have done an especially valuable piece of work through their home mission organizations in helping the large number of Negroes from the south who migrated to northern cities for work in war industries to become adjusted to their new environment. Through their Christian centers and their work under the Christian Commission for Camp and Defense Communities, they have done much to assist newcomers and to reduce racial tensions.

The Department of Race Relations of the Federal Council of Churches is the national Protestant agency for awakening interest and taking action in this field. Its achievements deserve attention.

In 1922 it initiated Race Relations Sunday on the second Sunday in February. From that beginning came Brotherhood Week and later, Brotherhood Month. The idea has grown until, instead of the rather timid gestures which marked its early observance, we now find it almost universally observed throughout Protestantism, with growing sincerity and enthusiasm.

The Department has been interested in promoting equal rights legislation such as a federal antilynching bill and legislation to establish a federal fair employment practices commission. It has also been active in encouraging self-help through consumer cooperation.

An interesting technique developed by the Department and used widely and successfully is the interracial clinic. This is an interracial conference held in local communities in cooperation with church federations and other interested groups for the purpose of studying conditions and making recommendations. Its philosophy is that bad conditions and discriminatory practices are social ills which will yield to diagnosis and treatment. Under the direction of experienced

leadership, committees make surveys of conditions in the community—housing, health, recreation, delinquency, education, employment, and many others. The entire group studies the findings of each committee and, before adjournment, decides to what persons or organizations they should be referred for action.

Such clinics have been held in Trenton and Newark, New Jersey; Evansville and Indianapolis, Indiana; Springfield, Illinois; Akron, Youngstown, and Toledo, Ohio; Portland, Oregon; Seattle, Washington; and seven cities in Michigan. The Department of Race Relations says of them, "Results include steps through mayors and other city officials for permanent committees to improve community conditions; employment opportunities opened up for all races; quickening of editors toward more publicity on local conditions; an awareness on the part of the local community of its own racial ills and how to cure them; spurring of the churches to awaken their groups to their own attitudes on race and opportunity for all; the appointment of full-time race relations executives in some church and other organizational set-ups."

A discussion of Protestantism's work in the field of inter-group relationships should include some mention of its participation in the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Although this agency is supported voluntarily rather than by the church, officially, the motivation of the Christians who support it is religious. The Conference promotes round-table discussions in communities where the relation of Jews and Gentiles presents a problem and publishes voluminously. It attempts to bring people together on the basis of their common needs and interests, to iron out points of difference, and to promote fellowship.

WORKING FOR WORLD PEACE

In the area of international understanding and world peace the church has functioned at all levels. Local churches with prophetic ministers have put a broad international interpretation upon such national holidays as Memorial Day, Inde-

pendence Day, and Armistice Day. Literature has been distributed, posters displayed, courses offered, forums held, and sermons preached.

Local councils of churches (interdenominational) have sponsored community services on some of the holidays mentioned and have interpreted them with a view to educating the community for world peace. They have brought speakers to community meetings or dinners, have sponsored radio programs, and have held forums for the discussion of both sides of controversial questions.

Many Protestant denominations have departments dealing with social questions. These gather information, publish and distribute literature, provide speakers, furnish program suggestions to local churches, and act as agents for the denomination in observing Congress, attending hearings, and suggesting political action to churches and individuals. These departments have felt great concern about the international situation and have functioned admirably in stimulating local churches to individual and community action.

Most effective in the field of international understanding, however, has been the Department of International Justice and Goodwill of the Federal Council of Churches. This department's Commission on a Just and Durable Peace, under the chairmanship of John Foster Dulles, has been the spearhead of all Protestant concern in this area.

Among its notable achievements was the conference held at Delaware, Ohio, from which came the widely discussed "Six Pillars of Peace," a statement of six political principles which express Christian ethical standards for international relations. The Commission prepared a study guide on the "Six Pillars" and carried on an effective campaign to promote its use throughout Protestant church circles, where hundreds of study groups were organized. A subsequent conference, at Cleveland, in January 1945, discussed the requirements for a just and durable peace, published findings, and promoted their study, until the phrase became a veritable by-word to thousands of Christians throughout the land.

Of such influence was the commission that it was invited to send consultants to the United Nations Conference on International Organization in San Francisco.

Such are some of the Protestant church's efforts in areas of tension. The evidence indicates that their results, though intangible, are real. As social awareness increases and more effective techniques are developed, there is every reason to believe that the church will play an increasingly important role in this field.

The future leaders for the churches are being trained in these techniques in some of our theological seminaries. The American Association of Theological Schools urges that pre-theological students get a good background of sociology as a basis for the analysis of social problems. Courses offered by Samuel Kincheloe, Liston Pope, and John Thomas, at Chicago Theological Seminary, Yale Divinity School, and Crozer Theological Seminary respectively, deal specifically with such methods. Summer-work projects enable students to observe and participate in successful programs like those described. Field work while in seminary is increasingly well-supervised to afford students guided experience in handling such programs; while voluntary student branches of the Religion and Labor Foundation and of the National Conference of Christians and Jews give opportunity for first-hand acquaintance with these areas of tension. Finally, the recent development of the ecumenical movement has brought the seminaries to deal with international problems in a new and more realistic way. The future is therefore promising.

Sorting Soldiers and Sorting Students

By ALONZO G. GRACE

HOW GOOD was wartime armed services classification of personnel? What features, if any, should be adapted and developed in peacetime civilian education? Did military trainees get valuable technical or other training which would have been inaccessible to them in civil life? What are the lessons for full development of human resources? Do schools and colleges have sufficient testing and counseling staffs? What is the role of teachers in improving the guidance service?

These questions are indicative of one of the many phases of the comprehensive two-year study now being conducted by the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. As a preliminary nontechnical exploratory inquiry, the Commission's staff recently asked the opinions of 180 civilian educators on the foregoing points. In all cases these individuals had wartime experience in or with the armed services as instructors, supervisors, directors of training, testing technicians, personnel officers, or in other assignments affording close observation of classification and training. Five out of six of them were commissioned officers, about half being in the grade of major or lieutenant commander or higher. Their civilian positions included those of deans and directors, full professors and department heads, and other faculty ranks in various institutions and departments; superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers in public and private schools; and some positions in industries and professions other than education.

Replies were received from 163 respondents. A synthesis of their opinions follows:

Wartime armed services experience indicates that personnel classification based on specifically validated tests and personal interviewing is adaptable to much wider use in American education.

Particularly promising for experimentation and adaptation for new

advances are the aircrew classification tests, the Army Specialized Training Program and Navy V-12 prognostic tests and achievement series, and the coordination and dexterity tests for trade skills. The cumulative personnel record of measured achievements has great possibilities for education and for industry.

In a considerable variety of fields armed-services trainees received costly and valuable training which many of them would have been unable to finance in civil life. Some of this was unwanted and some is unlikely to be directly utilized, but much of it constitutes important personal and community assets.

The armed-services classification and training systems uncovered reservoirs of undeveloped talents, and strongly indicate the need of greatly expanded scholarship systems for able civilian students.

Colleges and school systems should be provided with competent full-time testing experts at the rate of at least one per 1,000 students, plus essential clerical assistance and good equipment, and the service of expert counselors of students at a much more frequent rate.

Formal pre-service or in-service training in guidance and counseling is desirable for many teachers at all levels, but not indispensable for all; an economical and successful service requires cooperation between teachers and experts in testing and guidance in each institution and system of schools.

A more detailed picture is afforded by the specific questions, tabulations of the responses, and representative comments.

QUESTION 1

Did the practice of classification and selection as you observed it, with due allowances for wartime exigencies and human imperfections, conform to the theory that the basis should be the prospective ability of the trainee, as prognosed by the best possible testing of intelligence and aptitudes, interviewing, and case-history techniques?

Conformed 100%	2
About 90%	47
About 75%	75
50% or less	26
No response	13

Remarks as quoted below were generally of four types, showing a wide range, with concentrations much as indicated in the tabulation above.

Four out of five trainees were, I believe, carefully selected.

Approximately four out of five men were in fields adapted to ability.

Selection for school training (among recruits) was almost entirely on an aptitude basis.

Usually it was not classification but assignment that was at fault.

Necessity of filling certain quotas was the chief deterrent.

All too frequently recruits were assigned in accordance with current replacement needs rather than their prospective ability.

Desperate needs for personnel—e.g., in 1943 for riflemen with superior initiative and leadership—had precedence over considerations of aptitude for a less essential specialty.

Prognostic value of testing was not fully accepted until relatively late in the war.

Practice improved as the war progressed.

In 1942, was 50 percent; by 1945, had progressed well toward 90 percent.

The percentage improved as procedures and experience in their use improved.

Best possible tests were not always available.

Have heard of appalling lapses, but none observed directly.

Too often inadequately trained personnel were assigned to supervise and administer classification procedures.

In practice the classification and selection theory broke down at least 95 percent because of the quota system of selecting men for schools, pressure for manpower, and inefficiency of operating personnel.

It appeared to me to be little or no more effective than the law of chance.

QUESTION 2

Considering civilian education at all levels, in all parts of the United States, do you believe that borrowings or adaptations from the armed-services classification systems as observed by you would be of substantial benefit to the students?

Yes, in all colleges and school systems	66
Yes, where testing and counseling are now only of average extent and quality	44
Yes, but only in institutions and systems now below average in those respects	32
No	3
No response	18

What specific features, if any, should be borrowed or adapted? Representative responses were in the following words:

The interview and tests—which should be used in guidance service to assist in finding most suitable area of occupation and study.

This might "save" significant numbers of students from the ill effects of failure arising out of poor choice of courses of study.

Prognosis of student success in chosen fields, for counseling purposes.

The general idea of descriptive classification based on test data and personal interviews was sound.

General scholastic aptitude (intelligence) tests; tests of mechanical aptitude, and similar tests on vocational possibilities.

Certain coordination tests used by the air corps in selection of aviation cadets present new developments.

Tests for aircrew trainees, modified and adapted to various academic levels.

Eye examinations; double-check or multiple interview.

The ASTP and V-12 prognostic tests and achievement series.

Techniques related to aptitude testing in the aviation psychology program.

Adaptations of coordination and dexterity tests for trade skills.

Machine records; continuing inventory of skills; weighted grading system in assessment of multiple skills.

Qualification card with details of personal history, schooling, training, experience, aptitudes, and cumulative record of measured achievements.

A case record and qualification card containing test data (general intelligence, special aptitude tests, etc.) should accompany every student throughout his journey through the entire school period, just as it accompanied the soldier throughout his whole tour of active service.

The practice of having some sort of qualification card should be adopted by all colleges and school systems.

More systematic research in the areas of less tangible traits.

Specific techniques would have to be developed—could not be borrowed.

I do not believe that civilian programs would improve by borrowing.

None! Emphatically none! This wholesale mechanical system of regimentation will destroy the very essence of American education.

QUESTION 3

Do you believe a great many trainees in the armed services received and successfully completed costly specialized training which they would not have received in civil life on account of their inability to pay for it?

Yes	150
No	5
No response	8

This question evoked many spirited and explicit comments, of which these are typical:

Particularly those with good mental ability, but in low income brackets.

No doubt about this. Equipment used in technical and mechanical courses was very costly.

Unlimited budgets and materials of instruction made this possible; also, unlimited manpower to organize and instruct.

Undoubtedly—it gave opportunities that would not have been possible before the war.

There is no doubt of this in my mind due to many cases contacted.

Much of it not available at any price.

Training in air corps (pilot, navigator, meteorologist, etc.) would cost too much for *average* income.

At least a hundred thousand in the air corps, I would guess.

Undoubtedly, in the Army air forces. There is ample evidence that this training and experience has greatly influenced veterans' postwar plans for employment and further education.

And general training, too. Witness V-12 and Naval ROTC.

Army Specialized Training Program and Navy V-12 gave many deserving youth training that they were probably unable to get unaided.

Especially is this the case with medical students.

Emphatically yes: In medicine, dentistry, electronics, meteorology, etc.

Definitely so in the college training programs.

College advancement on strictly merit basis; very democratic.

In technical, applied fields, particularly.

Especially in such fields as electronics, where splendid laboratory facilities were available.

For example, courses in electronics, available to civilians only at high cost.

Especially in such specialties as radio and radar, and automobile and airplane maintenance.

Examples: Clerks, bakers and cooks, motor transport workers.

Especially true of administrative and medical training in the WAC.

Radio, radar, language courses, engineering skills, etc.

Special technical training only; very weak in general education.

Much of this training will not be used in civilian life.

Many received training, however, which they never would have desired.

This training naturally was primarily in the interests of the armed forces rather than of the individual. Educational subsidies for veterans and Veterans' Administration guidance centers are now compensating to a large extent.

QUESTION 4

Does the experience of the armed services as observed by you indicate that civilian education should be provided with better means of determining policies of student admission and guidance on the basis of individual ability rather than of individual financial resources?

Yes	151
No	8
No response	4

Reactions expressed in commentaries were strongly affirmative, coming from varied experiences and observations:

Yes! More scholarships for worthy students *are* needed.

Yes, assuming that the objective of public education is the betterment of the nation, and that it is desirable to do the most efficient job possible.

By all means! Our nation is wasting human resources of tremendous value because education and training are financial impossibilities for great numbers who are capable of further growth.

Some method must be devised by which individuals with ability can be given an opportunity to further their training.

Time and again, particularly with Southern soldiers, great potential ability had not been developed because of lack of opportunity.

Some of our finest young officers coming out of officer candidate schools could not have afforded a college education.

Army experience here corresponds with what nearly every thoughtful citizen realized before 1940.

This was apparent before the war, and the experience of the armed forces merely provides additional evidence.

The Army experience convinced me it can be done on a large scale.

The Army Specialized Training Program strongly indicates this point. Navy V-12 and other service programs bear this out.

Yes, absolutely. Those capable of profiting from college should be guaranteed the opportunity to attend.

The GI bill is a major, and good, revolution in this respect.

Decidedly. Need is urgent. GI benefits will overcome financial problem to some extent, but also permit the incapable to try college work too.

Yes, provided education programs are broad enough to meet the requirements of all students—not a restricted number.

Efforts must be made, however, to avoid public political pressures if government assistance is determined to be the final answer.

Perhaps communities or organizations can set up funds for this purpose.

All institutions should improve their guidance services.

QUESTION 5

Would you recommend that civilian colleges and school systems be provided with full-time competent testing and guidance experts at the rate of one for each 10,000 students? Each 1,000? Each 100? Or, specify your own figure.

<i>One for each</i>		
10,000	students	1
5,000	"	3
2,000	"	1
1,000	"	60
500	"	39

<i>One for each</i>		
300 students	5
250 "	3
200 "	2
125 "	1
100 "	19
50 "	2
No response	27

Comments varied widely, but exhibited a "center of gravity" distinguishable with no great difficulty:

Individual attention, not mass production, should be the objective.

Until this is done, education cannot hope to approach a high degree of efficiency (1 to 250).

World War I led to tremendous growth in testing movement; let's hope this war boosts competent guidance and counseling programs in schools.

Number assigned each counselor must be small enough to allow opportunity for personal conferences to interpret data.

A campus clinic is highly desirable.

Considerable clerical and statistical assistance is essential

Plus adequate clerical help and part-time counseling by selected members of the teaching staff.

I assume that the expert will develop procedures in cooperation with others.

Availability of trained assistants is assumed.

Competent part-time assistants should also be employed.

One for each 1,000 students in testing; one for each 250 in guidance.

One for each 1,000 in testing; about one for each 100 for counseling.

One psychometrist plus two counselors for each 500 students.

The ratio should be flexible. The first expert is more important than the tenth!

We should go farther and have these people prepare all classroom examinations if our school grades are to be fair and indicate the real ability of the student.

The fewer the better; the testing and guidance craze will blow over, or get entirely new method.

No full-time testing and guidance experts needed.

The only guidance that is any good is that from a sympathetic, competent teacher who comes in constant daily contact with the student.

QUESTION 6

Should each member of the teaching staff have some pre-service or in-service training in guidance and counseling?

Yes	119
No	39
No response	5

Responses in commentary form show a more accurate picture of the opinions, with the reasons therefor often cogently expressed:

All teachers need to participate in successful program. Need experts to direct program and furnish expert staff work.

Probably each should have enough to let him know what the program is, but actual counseling system depends on selected people in each field working with the central office.

Yes, definitely. We would have fewer teachers who teach only subject-matter.

Most essential. Must also have personality that inspires confidence.

Guidance and counseling should be the backbone of any school system.

That should be a part of the job of teaching.

Yes, if for no other reason than to correct misinformation on psychometrics.

This is necessary to complement the work of the specialist.

Broadens educational perception and makes possible sympathetic and understanding treatment of educational problems.

Especially important for younger teachers.

Only for recognition of student difficulties and reference to expert.

Some faculty members should be selected for aptitude in this field, then trained and relieved of some of their teaching load—under supervision of a full-time guidance expert.

Desirable for many; not indispensable for all.

To make it a requirement would rob it of some of its value.

Such training should be given to many more members of the teaching staff; but universal training for all college teachers would cause so much irritation as to make it a farce.

Only those who show definite interest and aptitude for it.

Some scholars whose teaching contribution is great would *never* make counselors.

Every good instructor would not necessarily be a good counselor.

Some individuals should not attempt such work, by reason of temperament and personality.

Not necessarily, but they should be oriented and qualified to cooperate intelligently.

I think counseling is a specialist's business.

This would imply many self-appointed "experts."

We need teachers with brains and scholarship; don't clutter them all with guidance.

The so-called "training" in guidance as I have observed it breeds efficient and officious busybodies.

The foregoing samples of opinion are from a limited fraction of a considerable body of persons who have a particular point of vantage from which to consider the implications of the wartime experience, namely, the dual experience of service in civilian education before the war and of wartime service in or with the Army, the Army air forces, the Navy, or the Marine Corps in some capacity directly connected with the conduct of classification or of the varied training programs. Most of the respondents had already returned to civilian positions in universities, colleges, and school systems and are now located in 38 states, from coast to coast and from North to South.

This preliminary nontechnical inquiry was not intended to indicate definitively the scope of the Commission's studies in this particular area. A member of the Commission's staff, expert in this field and especially qualified by civilian and military experience in it, is now at work on technical studies expected to culminate in a report pointing out such implications as can be soundly derived from the wartime experience in the selection, use, and construction of aptitude and achievement tests for specific purposes; the administration of testing and counseling; and avenues of further research opened up by that experience. The effort is to extract from the wartime experience such elements as offer valid promise of actual advances in techniques and practices of testing and counseling as tools of American education, labor, and industry—as levers to lift the individual and national well-being.

What Kind of a Student Will the Veteran Be?

By KIMBALL YOUNG

OF CONSIDERABLE INTEREST to American colleges and universities is a report (now in press) of the work accomplished at Shrivenham American University.¹ This was one of three Army university centers established by the War Department in Europe during 1945. The other two were at Florence, Italy, and Biarritz, France. Since the courses, soldier-students, and the make-up of the faculties were highly similar in all three, the findings of the Shrivenham survey apply for the most part to the work done at the other two.²

The report on Shrivenham American University (hereafter designated as S.A.U.) is based on the results of three questionnaires filled out in November 1945. Two of these were administered to a cross section of the student body, and the third was filled out by faculty members. Some additional data from the registrar's office were also used. The report should interest administrators, advisers, and teachers who are concerned with veteran education since the findings and interpretations have certain general application to the difficulties of soldier-students in adjusting to the academic world. Many presidents, deans, registrars, and departmental chairmen will want to know about the quality of the work done at the Army university centers since a large proportion of the men who enrolled at these centers will ask various col-

¹ The author, who was head of the sociology branch, served as consultant to the official historian of Shrivenham, Captain R. G. Bone. He is indebted to Lieutenant William A. Bradbury, Jr., and to the Research Staff Section of the Information and Education Division of the Theater Service Forces, European theater, for help in preparing a report on Shrivenham American University from which the present summary is drawn. The more complete report will appear as a chapter in *The History of Shrivenham American University*, prepared by Captain Bone, under a directive of Brigadier General C. M. Thiele, head of the institution. This history will be distributed shortly to American colleges and universities.

² All three are now closed.

leges and universities to grant them full credit for the courses which they completed there. Already nearly 16,000 soldiers have finished courses at Shrivenham and Biarritz; and before the latter is closed, another 6,000 will probably have done so. Still later, men who enroll in the university centers set up for the Army of Occupation in Germany will request credit transfers.

Shrivenham, like Biarritz, was organized along the general lines of our university summer schools. Each session was for eight weeks, classes met five days a week, and the normal load of work was three courses. High school graduation was the only formal entrance requirement. The soldiers were selected through a quota system from a wide variety of military units in the European theater of operations. Ninety percent were enlisted men and women; the balance were officers. During the two terms of S.A.U. just under 8,000 students were enrolled.

The academic work was divided into eight sections: agriculture, commerce (including economics), education, engineering, fine arts, journalism, liberal arts, and science. The particular courses in these fields closely resembled those in our institutions of higher learning.

The faculty was recruited from 150 civilian institutions in the United States and from among officers and enlisted men in the Army itself who had teaching experience. At the time of the survey, the ratio of civilian to military in the faculty stood 55 to 45 respectively. The former group remained relatively constant throughout; there was some turnover among the latter because some of the men were sent home for discharge and others arrived as replacements. The instructional staff fluctuated between 250 and 275 in number.

The qualifications of the faculty as measured by status and teaching experience was very good. Three out of four had had five years or more of collegiate teaching. More than a quarter of them had had from fifteen to twenty-five years of college teaching experience. The composition of the civilian contingent was somewhat atypical due to War Department policy which did not permit recruitment of men un-

der the age of forty-two years. For example, nearly 90 percent of the men held professorial ranks—associate, assistant, or full—in their parent institutions, and even more than 90 percent had taught five years or more. In fact, nearly one out of four of them had had more than twenty-five years of classroom experience.⁸

While we have no data for comparing S.A.U. students with veterans enrolled in American colleges and universities, a few basic facts about the Shrivenham student body may be noted. More than one-half (57 percent) were between twenty and twenty-three years of age, and three out of four were single. Nearly one-half (47 percent) came from cities with populations of 100,000 or more. More than four out of ten had been overseas between one year and eighteen months, and as many as one in ten had been out of the United States more than two years. The modal student (37 percent of the total) had been out of school, full-time college or high school, "over two years, up to three years." Slightly more than one-third were high school graduates only; 14 percent had had less than one year in college; one-third ranged from one year to three years of college; and about one in ten were college graduates. Three percent, in fact, had done at least one semester of graduate work.

A portion of the faculty questionnaire dealt with such topics as maturity, adjustability, and other factors in the soldiers' potential return to civilian education and with matters of grading and accreditation. While S.A.U. students may have differed somewhat from the cross section of veterans who are or will be in our institutions of higher learning in terms of age, previous education, and plans for postwar education, they were perhaps fairly typical. Table 1 gives certain suggestive comparative judgments on such matters as maturity, intellectual ability, and classroom performance.

⁸ The S.A.U. newspaper, *The Shrivenham Post*, for September 19, 1945, reported that of the 130 civilians then on the faculty, 17 percent were listed in *Who's Who in America*. This would seem to be a pretty high standing as measured by this criterion.

TABLE 1

INSTRUCTORS' COMPARISONS OF S.A.U. STUDENTS WITH PREWAR COLLEGE GROUPS

Qualities	Comparison By Percentages			
	More	About Same	Less	Don't Know or No Answer
General maturity.....	89	9	..	2
Interest in academic work.....	73	24	2	2
"Down-to-earthness" insistence on realism.....	70	22	1	7
Willingness to study.....	53	36	7	5
Critical attitude toward instructor's statements.....	49	36	10	5
Interest and willingness to consult instructors personally.....	46	39	11	4
Ability to think critically.....	39	47	6	8
Make or demand critical analysis rather than snap judgments.....	31	45	13	11
General intellectual ability.....	26	65	6	2
Ability to express ideas clearly in speech.....	21	58	13	8
Ability to concentrate on studies.....	19	47	26	8
Ability to express ideas clearly in writing.....	9	54	23	14

Evidently on matters of general maturity, interest in school work, a down-to-earth realism, willingness to study, critical attitudes, and willingness to consult with teachers personally, these soldier-students impressed their teachers very favorably in comparison with students of similar level in the ordinary college situation. On the other hand, in ability to concentrate on studies, to express ideas clearly in speech or writing, the S.A.U. students were judged less favorably.

Somewhat related to maturity and realistic thinking is the question as to just how "rusty" the students were when they found themselves back in the classroom or laboratory. Three out of ten of the students said that the courses they took tried to cover too much ground; only 4 percent said "too little." Also, one out of four stated that they found it more difficult to adjust to schoolwork than they had anticipated, though one in ten said it was less difficult. Some measure of the faculty's views on rate of adjustment is indicated in their replies to a question as to whether their students seemed rusty academically at the opening and again toward the close of the term. One out of four of the faculty said that "about

one-half" of their students seemed rusty at the opening, and three out of ten stated that "most" of them seemed rusty. Four out of ten judged that only a "few" of their students were rusty at the beginning. Yet, almost all the faculty said that within six weeks or less most of this handicap had disappeared, though three out of four thought that "a few" remained rusty even after six weeks of school work.

As to the quality of the faculty itself, the general judgment of the members was that in skill in teaching, devotion to the job at hand, and mutual helpfulness it was much superior to their civilian institutions at home. In sharp contrast, however, the overwhelming proportion of the staff was unfavorably impressed with the provisions for textbooks, library reference books, and facilities for study for students and faculty alike. Yet, despite these negative features somewhat more than one-half of the faculty (56 percent) believed they were more lenient in grading S.A.U. students than was their custom at their home institutions. And as to accreditation, the bulk of the faculty (75 percent) felt that S.A.U. students should be given credit in American colleges and universities on an hour-for-hour equalization scheme. That is, for a five-day week of eight weeks duration, or forty class hours, the students were entitled to approximately two and one-half semester hours or three and one-half quarter hours of credit. Also, three out of five favored a blanket policy of accreditation for work at S.A.U. Three out of ten were for a more selective policy which would examine and adjudge each course for which credit was asked in terms of its content, quality of performance, and the teacher.

The inconsistency between a negative opinion regarding the textbook-library situations and poor facilities for study on the one hand and the tendency toward leniency in grading and approval of hour-for-hour accreditation on the other is more apparent than real. The explanation is that the majority of the faculty were convinced, first, that the classroom teaching was superior to that in the usual session at home, and, second, that the field trips organized as part of formal

courses plus the many week-end trips arranged by the Special Services Division of the Army tended to offset the lack of texts or library facilities. In course after course in every section, students were taken on conducted tours to enrich their text and classroom work. The classes which took advantage of such opportunities ranged from history, literature, and art, to such courses as urban sociology, anthropology, botany, animal and plant husbandry, industry, business, and education.

There are a number of suggestive facts in this survey regarding postwar veteran education. Three out of four of the S.A.U. students stated that they will "definitely" or "probably" go back to a college or university. Moreover, of these, nearly eight out of ten plan to attend full time. Also, of these students, one-fifth expect to spend from one to two years in college, another one-fifth from two to three years, and as many as one-third of them intend to go for over three years up to four.

In the light of the current discussion of an accelerated program for veterans, it is worth noting that nearly one-half (47 percent) of these students favored the usual four-year college course, while one-third (35 percent) wanted a speeded-up program to enable them to get through under a three-year plan. Eighteen percent said it made no difference or else failed to reply to this question.

Apropos the establishment of a variety of guidance programs to aid the veteran adjust to education and a job, it is interesting to note what both faculty and students had to say about the matters. Of the students who plan "definitely" or "probably" to go on to college, nearly one-half (47 percent) said they would like to have some form of educational advisement, such as help on methods of study, and the like; one-quarter believed they would not want much help of this sort; and slightly less than one in five said they would not need any such aid. Eight percent said they would need such help "very much." When questioned about vocational guidance, more than one-half (54 percent) stated they would like to have it if it was available; 18 percent, that they would

not need "much" aid; and 15 percent said that they would not need any such help. This expressed need for vocational guidance is interesting in view of the fact that of this same sample, four out of ten said they knew what kind of work they expected to do when they had finished school, and another 46 percent said they had "a pretty fair idea" as to what they wanted in the way of occupation. Thus, despite a certain verbal self-assurance as to future vocations, a considerable fraction would still welcome some vocational advice, apparently just to be on the safe side.

The judgment of the faculty as to need of prospective veteran students for expert guidance is revealed in the following table:

TABLE 2
FACULTY OPINIONS ON VETERANS' PROBABLE NEED FOR GUIDANCE
IN COMPARISON WITH NONVETERAN STUDENTS

Type of Help Needed	Comparison by Percentages*		
	More Help	About Same	Less Help
Expert guidance in course selection.....	23	41	35
Educational advisement on study habits, etc.....	25	51	22
Expert vocational guidance.....	25	38	34

* There were small percentages in each category who gave no answer. These are not reported here.

There are some rather sharp divergences here. More than one-third of the teachers believe that the veterans will require *less* help than nonveteran students. This is consistent with their views that S.A.U. students, most of whom are prospective veteran-students, are more mature and less confused than the run-of-the-mill college students with whom they are familiar. Yet, one-fourth of the teachers are of exactly the opposite opinion. It is worth noting that the faculty members recruited from the Army, more than their civilian colleagues, believe veterans will need these services.

On the matter of general readjustment to civilian life and especially to educational work, the faculty tended to take a rather optimistic view. Only 7 percent of the faculty thought that the veteran-students would have *more* difficulties than

the nonveteran students who have stayed out of school and worked for the same number of years. One in five thought that the veterans would have fewer difficulties than nonveteran students; a slightly higher proportion (23 percent) thought the two groups of students would have about the same amount of difficulty; and somewhat more than four in ten (45 percent) thought they would "have about the same difficulties as nonveteran students who have stayed out of school, working, for the same number of years." This same view is reflected in the fact that two-thirds of the faculty oppose giving veteran students any special "breaks" as veterans aside from particular services which will help them to adjust to civilian and educational routines.

Finally, we tried to discover if there were any correlations between Army experience and academic proficiency. We gave an objective questionnaire to a cross section of students at all levels from freshman to advanced. To each student's paper was added his Army general classification test score and his academic proficiency. This academic proficiency measurement was obtained by dividing an order-of-merit rating of each class into thirds, which were then labeled top, middle, and bottom categories. Although we had a wide variety of objective elements, few correlated highly with academic proficiency. The best positive relationship was between AGCT scores and scholastic performance; next in importance was that between prior education and class grades. Length of time in the Army was slightly, but positively, correlated with academic grades. This may well have been due to variation in motivation (see below). Those who were more ambitious about their Army assignments also tended to do well. On the other hand, age did not consistently correlate with proficiency. From an over-all view, the younger men did poorly, the men in their mid-twenties did better than the average, but, again, the older men did less well than the average. There were some divergencies in terms of sections: in science-engineering (combined for purposes of analysis) proficiency diminished steadily as age increased, in commerce just the

opposite occurred, and in the liberal arts age made almost no difference at all. So, too, in the S.A.U. sample, combat experience seemed to have no relation to school success. Men who went through artillery fire did slightly better than average, but those who faced small-arms (front line) fire showed no consistent pattern of high or low proficiency, no matter what other factors held constant. Likewise, time spent overseas had no bearing on academic grades, though there was a slight correlation between rank as an enlisted man and academic proficiency. The officer-students did not have AGCT scores on their records, but on the whole they did better than enlisted men in their academic work.

In short, there seem to be four main factors which influenced the academic performance of students at S.A.U.: (1) the general and persisting abilities which were measured by the AGCT at the time the men entered the Army; (2) the amount of previous education; (3) rustiness as measured by time out of school for those who had been to college; and (4) motivation. As to the last-named, there appear to be two distinct elements: (a) a *specific* scholastic incentive, reflected in the fact that those who had been in the Army a long time, were due for early release and return to school did better than those recently out of school who were new in the Army and expected to remain in service for some time to come; and (b) a *general* motivation, reflected in the correlation between rank in the Army and proficiency in their courses, and in the positive correlation between the ambitious "eager beaver" type and academic standing.

Although interesting, the data on proficiency and these other factors are not conclusive. Unfortunately, we do not have data on interest in the content of given courses, attitudes toward instructors, views on the importance or nonimportance of grades at S.A.U., or how hard the students were trying to make good. Yet the survey does show something of the academic adaptability of prospective veterans. Certainly in terms of the findings of this student survey and of faculty judgment, there is no reason to believe that men with

combat experience will have any special difficulties in adjusting to matters academic.

On the other hand, though the faculty, for the most part, tended to discount the idea that there would be any serious adjustment problems for veterans, a number of cautions on this matter should be noted. The conditions under which the soldiers went to school at S.A.U. were—as many a GI said—ideal. The men had all the advantages and practically none of the disadvantages of military life: good billets, good food, no formal military duties, ample leisure, and a free choice among a rich offering of courses, taught by evidently better-than-average teachers. When these men return to civil life they may not find conditions quite so favorable. While they may expect and get sympathetic treatment, the colleges and universities are also going to be serving a large number of nonveteran students as well. At Shrivenham, as at Biarritz and Florence, the GI's were the whole show; the institutions were built up and run for them only.

Then, too, there is some evidence that the faculty, and particularly the older men of higher academic status and more teaching years, tended to idealize their soldier-students a bit. There was probably here a combination of vicarious satisfaction with military exploits and a certain sense of guilt arising from the fact that the faculty could not be in the Army to share the war with them. These older men especially were also more lenient about grading, more inclined to be generous about accreditation, more convinced that the week-end trips and the extensive program of recreation did not interfere with the students' academic work than were their colleagues in general or many of the younger teachers recruited from the Army itself.

How Mussolini Provided for a GI University

By WALTER CROSBY EELLS

THE LATE unlamented Mr. B. Mussolini would have stirred uneasily in his unhonored grave could he have seen thousands of democratic American soldiers, who had suddenly abandoned rifles and grenades for textbooks and notebooks, swarming over the beautiful campus and through the marble halls of the palatial plant in Florence, Italy, which he, as Italian minister of aeronautics (in addition to his many other offices), built for the use of his favorite institution, the Royal Fascist School of Applied Aeronautics. For four months in 1945—July to November—a unique American university was in operation here. The eight main buildings blossomed overnight with large signs informing the surprised Italian populace as well as the battle-weary and homesick GI's, thousands of miles from the United States, that soldiers would soon be making themselves at home at Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, Duke, Vanderbilt, the Citadel, and Stanford! For this was the pioneer American Army university of World War II. Later others were to open in England and in France, but the one in Florence was the first for American troops awaiting deployment to the United States.

When VE Day came, it found close to a half-million of our troops in Italy and the adjacent territories of MTOUSA (Mediterranean theater of operations of the United States Army), and it was clear that it would be many months before most of them could be shipped back to the United States. The Information and Education Division of the Army Service Forces, however, had foreseen such an outcome and had already made preliminary plans for the organization of one or more temporary institutions of university level at which several thousand qualified men could spend at least part of their time more happily and more profitably than in griping as

they "sweated out" their period of waiting at some drab "Repple Depple" as the men christened the dreary redeployment depots that were set up at the principal points of embarkation.

The idea of a GI university overseas was not new. Plans were taking shape for it as far back as 1942 before American soldiers even landed in North Africa. Three officials of the University Study Center at Florence were students at the School for Army Education held at Washington and Lee University in Virginia in 1944 and helped materially in the details of actual organization. They were Captain Gordon C. Adkins, of Stanford University, who became secretary of the faculty; Lieutenant Bradley Davis, of the University of Texas, who became assistant secretary of the faculty; and Lieutenant Homer F. Aker, formerly superintendent of schools at Imperial, California, who became librarian. This trio arrived overseas together in January 1945 and immediately began planning MTOUSA's educational program under the supervision of Lieutenant Colonel Edwin H. Miner, head of the Education Branch of the Information and Education Division in Italy.

At first Rome appeared to be the best location for the infant university, but it was impossible to secure satisfactory facilities there, and on June 15 Florence was selected. Then began a mad rush to prepare for the opening of the institution on July 1. Brigadier General Foster J. Tate was placed in command of "University Training Command" which had been established to operate the new university. His first move was to call Lieutenant Colonel (later Colonel) Irving C. Whittemore and Lieutenant Colonel (later Colonel) Wentworth Williams, both former faculty members of Boston University, as his two chief assistants—the former as vice president, the latter as dean. General Tate was subsequently replaced by Colonel John W. Harmony of Ohio, but Colonel Whittemore and Colonel Williams remained throughout the life of the institution and were chiefly responsible for continuity of policy and maintenance of sound academic standards.

Certainly no better place could have been selected for university study. Few cities are as rich as Florence in works of historic and artistic interest and significance. Florence was the home of Michelangelo and Raphael, of Leonardo da Vinci and Cellini, of Dante and Galileo, of Savonarola and the Medici, and of Amerigo Vespucci—for whom America was named. Here are found the famed duomo and its campanile built by Giotto, the baptistry and the Pitti Palace, and dozens of famous churches, museums, galleries, libraries, monuments, and palaces filled with world-renowned paintings, frescoes, statuary, and relics of earlier civilizations. What a site for a GI university!

True, some of the most famous of the galleries, such as the Uffizi, were closed: windows had been shattered by German demolition charges, and many of their works of art were not back from the hiding places to which the Italians took their greatest treasures to avoid their destruction or capture at the hands of the Germans. Not all escaped this fate, however. While the University was operating at Florence, 500 paintings and 100 cases of sculptures filling sixteen freight cars, retaken from the Germans in Northern Italy, were returned to Florence. The famous bronze doors of the baptistry, Michelangelo's "Night" and "Dawn" on the tombs of the Medici, and many other famed objects were not yet in place again while the University was operating. But half of the art treasures of the city could have been removed and the remaining half would still have formed a reservoir rich enough to make an unsurpassed background for study by American students.

The University Study Center was fortunate in being able to make arrangements with the University of Florence (founded in 1321) for the use of many of its lecture rooms, laboratories, and museums. The museums offered a wealth of material not normally found even in the largest university centers in the United States. The museums of zoology, of physiology, of mineralogy, and of antiquities, contain many thousands of mounted specimens, many of which cannot be

duplicated elsewhere in the world. Thus opportunities for special study were unsurpassed—opportunities that would never have come to GI Joe had he not been compelled, against his will, to stay in Europe for long months after VE Day waiting for transportation back to the States.

Three-quarters of the 200 faculty members were secured from all ranks of the Army, ranging from privates to colonels. They were chosen primarily for their academic training and experience, not for their military rank. Only half of the military members of the faculty were commissioned officers. Many of the noncommissioned-officer instructors had received their doctors' degrees from leading American universities between 1937 and 1942—for example, Master Sergeant William C. Beckman, in biology, from the University of Michigan; Corporal William K. Cornell, in languages, and Sergeant Arthur L. Kurth, also in languages, both from Yale; T/5 Jean H. Hagstrum and Staff Sergeant Frederick Mulhauser, Jr., both in English and also both from Yale; Staff Sergeant Robert H. Talbert, in social sciences, from Duke; and T/5 Peter Viereck, in social sciences, from Harvard.

The number of qualified faculty members available from the Army, however, was insufficient, and it was supplemented by more than forty civilians recruited from government positions and from university faculties in the United States and hurriedly flown to Florence after the institution was in operation.

In many cases commissioned officers were students. Lieutenants, captains, and majors in the classrooms took orders from privates and corporals who were their instructors—and liked it!—or at least made no trouble. Instructors were required to wear ties and students were not—this was the chief means of distinguishing one from the other by exterior appearance!

While the enrollment was prevaillingly men, the University actually was coeducational, a total of 117 WACs and nurses being enrolled. The feminine contingent had their own dean of women. She was Captain Verna A. McCluskey, a WAC

Captain in the Air Forces, who in civilian life was a graduate of the University of Missouri and an experienced social worker.

Enrollment in the opening session was in excess of 1,300; for the three later sessions, each one month in length, from 2,000 to 2,700 each. In addition, a special group of 300 was enrolled for a three-months' course in Italian history, art, literature, and economics at the University of Florence. A total of almost 10,000 men took advantage of the varied educational facilities of the University Training Command during the five months of its active service in Italy.

The student body was much more mature than the average college student body in the United States—in years and even more in experience. Half of the men enrolled for the first session were twenty-five years of age or older. In the average American college the median age is about twenty years. Many members of the faculty commented on the unusually serious-mindedness and earnestness of the men. They were ready to study. They were eager to get back into college life. They were anxious to make up for lost time.

About half of the men were high school graduates who had never been to college; half had had some college work, and of these, one in seven was a college graduate. Many of these enrolled for special work at the graduate level under the personal supervision of outstanding professors.

Military regulations for students were kept to a minimum. Saluting and wearing caps were abolished on the campus. "Hello" and "good morning" from officers and men alike were substituted for the military salute. For the most part formal military formations were limited to two brief retreats weekly. Every effort was made to create a normal collegiate atmosphere comparable to that prevailing on the campus of an American university. An elected student council met frequently with the administrative officers and aided in improving billeting, food, transportation, sight-seeing tours, and the grading system.

Ample athletic facilities were available, including a large

outdoor swimming pool, stables with sixty horses for those with equestrian tastes, numerous fields and courts for baseball, softball, badminton, tennis, horseshoe pitching, volleyball, basketball, boxing, and football. Beside the intramural program, schedules of competitive sports were arranged with other army units in the area, which were usually played in the "Spaghetti Bowl," as the men christened the local athletic stadium.

"The work in physical education has been greeted with tremendous enthusiasm by the men and every sport has been given excellent support," said the athletic director, Captain Wayne Bartholomew, formerly coach at Santa Ana Junior College, California. The satisfaction of the students was reflected in the observation of Corporal Thaddeus J. Derendal of the Air Transport Command: "I expected the same old Army calisthenics with the ordinary routine. I was really surprised at the program I found here!"

A series of Tuesday evening lectures by outstanding faculty members was organized. The Red Cross sponsored "brain trust" discussion programs and radio roundtable broadcasts. "Town meeting" programs attended by the entire student body were developed. Among the subjects discussed were the atomic bomb, should we join veterans organizations, what about conscription, educational opportunities under the GI Bill of Rights; Galileo as a mathematician, can opera appeal to Americans, can marriages with Italian girls be successful.

In one respect the university life differed markedly from that of an American university—the presence of 480 German prisoners of war. These PW's acted as cooks and waiters in the mess halls, as janitors who were constantly cleaning and polishing the marble floors, as gardeners cultivating the shrubbery on the campus. For the most part they seemed fairly content with their temporary lot. Only two escaped during the period the University was in session.

Numerous courses of study of standard college grade, some 300 in all, were offered in ten departments: agriculture, biological sciences, business administration, English, education,

fine arts (art, architecture, music), languages, mathematics, physical sciences, and social sciences (economics, history, philosophy, political science, psychology, sociology).

Half of the students were enrolled in one or more of the ten languages offered. Italian, of course, was the most popular, with 650 students in a single session. It was followed in popularity by French, Spanish, and German. Substantial enrollments were also found in Russian, Portuguese, Latin, Greek, Japanese, and Chinese.

Almost as popular were the courses in business administration, reflecting the ambition of hundreds of servicemen to get into small businesses for themselves upon their discharge from the service.

Most popular single course in the institution, however, was one on the "Psychology of Marriage." More than 800 men and women enrolled for its three sections in the closing session, and the registration would have been much larger had it not been limited by available facilities.

Enrollments were also heavy in the department of agriculture and forestry. An arboretum with 350 species of trees was available for study on the campus, while the national forest and experiment station at Vallombrosa, high in the Apennine mountains, containing 3,000 species of trees and shrubs, was utilized as a laboratory for forestry students. Classes in cooperative marketing, crop management, and soil conservation made numerous trips to cooperative farms and studied agricultural methods in vineyards and farms of the large and fertile district surrounding the city of Florence.

In the sciences extensive use was made of the laboratories, libraries, and museums of the University of Florence. The botanical library is one of the finest in Europe and the herbarium is one of the largest. The materials for the study of anatomy were unsurpassed for they included the world-famous collection of more than 600 full-size wax models of the human body showing every detail of muscle, bone, and nervous system. These were made by the Italian anatomist Clemente Sussini between 1775 and 1791 and evoked the surprised ad-

miration of every member of the science faculty for their accuracy and fidelity. Incidentally, Sussini was rewarded for this marvellous task by imprisonment for the last ten years of his life for "desecration of the human body"!

The complete facilities of the Instituto di Geologia e Paleontologia were placed at the disposal of the department of physical sciences. Its museum of invertebrate paleontology contained more than 100,000 fossils for study. Classes in mineralogy and geology took field trips by Army truck from the Tyrolean Alps to the volcanic regions of the Alban Hills and Vesuvius. They visited the marble quarries at Carrara and the mercury deposits at Monte Amiata, the second largest in the world.

The department of fine arts gave courses in the history of Florentine architecture and art, illustrated by frequent trips to study at first hand the most important paintings, sculpture, and buildings. A course on "Florentine Monuments" consisting of lectures and twice-a-week guided trips to the monuments and works of art discussed, was particularly popular and rewarding for the large group of nonspecialists who wanted to learn something of the art treasures of the city.

Sergeant Robert Lawrence, a graduate of the Juilliard School and music critic for the New York *Herald Tribune* from 1939 to 1943, was head of the music department, reorganized the Florence Symphony Orchestra, which had been scattered by the war, and conducted several outstanding concerts for the University community, Allied troops in the Florence area, and music lovers of the city. Many other concerts and recitals were given. Student glee clubs and orchestras were developed.

Students in the course in journalism published the weekly *USCollegian*, a breezy, newsy, four-page sheet which would have done credit to any American college. Occasional weird typographical results were due to the fact that the type was set by Italian compositors who did not know a word of English.

Students in education courses visited a progressive Pestalozzi school, a school for underprivileged children, a modern technical secondary school, the exhibits of the National

Didactic Center, and other examples of the modern Italian educational system.

Men interested in physics and astronomy had access to the Florentine Observatory, where Galileo did much of his work. In the Museum of Science they could examine his telescope, his original notes, and the many other instruments which he and Torricelli and other Italian scientists developed.

A library of more than 10,000 volumes was assembled by Librarian Aker and proved reasonably satisfactory for supplementary reading, general reference work, and specialized assignments. In addition, the libraries of the University of Florence and the Biblioteca Nazionale (with 75,000 volumes in English) and a half-dozen other specialized libraries in the city were available for faculty and student use.

Was the GI university at Florence worth while? Were the results commensurate with the effort that went into its organization and operation? Both students and faculty would answer with an enthusiastic affirmative. Four significant results may be noted.

First, the men learned a great deal in the short intensive courses in which they were enrolled. Credit for courses successfully completed at Florence unquestionably will be accepted by most American colleges and universities. The men were thus that much closer to their coveted college degrees, already long delayed.

Second, the men were enabled to fill their time profitably while awaiting deployment to the States. Although, in common with all Army personnel, the men were impatient to return home, probably those at Florence were among the most contented in all Europe. "The most wonderful thing that has happened to me in the Army," said Sergeant Charles M. Northup, of Pisgah, Iowa. "The four weeks I spent there was the best deal I ever had in the Army and all of the other GI's attending the school thought so too!" said Sergeant L. Laverty of the Air Corps. The temporary parenthesis between war and peace was filled most profitably for several thousand men by the University Study Center.

A third significant result was the practical demonstration

of racial tolerance and unity. Several hundred Negro students were enrolled each session. Also many Nisei, Japanese-Americans, members of the most decorated 442nd Regimental Combat team, the fightingest and most honored outfit in the American army in Italy.

There was little or no evidence of racial prejudice. Colored troops, white troops, Japanese-American troops, Jewish troops, lived together, ate together, swam together, played together, studied together, and learned to respect each other.

The chairman of the student council during the first session was Private First Class Isamu S. Aoki, of the famed 442nd Nisei regiment. During the third session it was Sergeant Harold Brown, Jr., a Negro student from Denver. The first secretary was a WAC, Technical Sergeant Jennie Kraft, of Teaneck, New Jersey. The prize awarded publicly at the closing exercises to the most outstanding athletic leader and valued player went amid prolonged applause to Sergeant Willard Stargel, a Negro from Cincinnati.

The student council took the initiative in issuing a public statement in reply to Congressman Rankin's pronouncement that "we are trying to keep the flag flying over a white government." In their reply, published in the Italian edition of the *Stars and Stripes*, they said in part: "Those words, uttered by a member of Congress right after America and her Allies have won a war which we were told by the federal government, OWI, and the Army was to bring the Four Freedoms to the enslaved peoples of the world, are rather ironical. We ask you, Representative Rankin, did our buddies die in vain? Will America become the place on earth where all men, regardless of race, color, or creed can work together as peaceful, law-abiding citizens? Or will you and your kind win out over the teachings of all religions, morals, ethics, and all that is decent?"

And finally, for many of the men perhaps the most important result was the transition and adjustment to civilian life. Several thousand men got back into the habit of study, into the atmosphere of academic life. It was a reconditioning experience. After three or four years of Army life, much

of it in active combat in the gruelling Italian campaigns, it was not always easy to settle down to serious study again. The difficulties of transition from Army life to campus life will be eased for many men as a result of their experiences in the University Study Center at Florence.

Several hundred men attending the first session of the University were asked the question, "If a friend had a chance to attend the next session of the University here, would you recommend that he come or stay away?" Two-thirds of them replied that they "would recommend the University highly to a buddy," one-third "would say that the University is O. K.," and only one in a hundred "would tell his buddy to stay away from it."

When asked how the work at the University Study Center compared with their previous college work, the majority of those who had had earlier college experience ranked the University as high or higher than their former college on each of three counts, (1) skill of the instructors, (2) quality of textbooks, and (3) as a place where they were learning as much as in their former college.

"The present students are more mature than the average college man, they are interested in their studies, and they are willing to work hard in the business of becoming educated," said Dean Williams. Then, thinking back over his experience of sixteen years in the field of education in Massachusetts, he added, "If I can get a student body like this one when I return to the States, life will be one long rest!"

Unfortunately American veterans by the thousands have returned to the States knowing and remembering only the mud, the rain, the grim mountain fighting, the poverty and drabness of Italy. But almost ten thousand returning after their weeks in Florence have brought with them a very different and far happier memory of the beauty and culture of Italy as they become college men again—and future leaders of the world civilization for which they fought so many long and weary months in Italy—thanks to the unsurpassed facilities provided unwittingly for them by B. Mussolini.

Seedtime and Harvest in the Field of Liberal Education

By J. HILLIS MILLER

THE FIELD of liberal education is now fallow. It has been plowed and harrowed extensively. One may be accused, therefore, of a lack of agronomical intelligence, but certainly not of audaciousness, if he presumes to continue the plowing and the harrowing. Is it not seedtime in this field of learning? An affirmative answer too glibly given might easily overlook the difficulty which lies in the fact that in seeding we must be prepared to define the crops we hope to harvest as the result of our labors.

It is true that over a considerable period of time, some educational agronomists have been discussing and selecting the seed they propose to sow in the fertile and promising soil of liberal education. A few educators have actually sown the seed on experimental plots and on a kind of experimental basis. Some have even attempted to reduce the time for germination and growth. The less thoughtful and less progressive over the years have been sowing inferior seed, or at best a heterogeneous mixture of seed, on unfallowed ground. All three groups are guilty to a greater or lesser degree of lacking clarity in defining and understanding the crops they hope to gather at harvest time. Little wonder they have not known what should constitute the subject matter of liberal education.

The foregoing discussion implies an instrumental or—heaven save us—practical theory of liberal education. That is precisely what we mean to imply. Liberal education should function in action. A special, or at least a definitive, kind of conduct and behavior should be its outcome.

This point of view leaves one open immediately to the charge that no distinction is being made between general or liberal education and vocational or specialized education. We admit a distinction (as we shall point out later) but the

distinction is not in terms of specificity. If this be heresy, the reader will have to make the most of it. In the writer's opinion, liberal education is just as instrumental and just as practical as vocational or professional education. The objectives are different in kind, but not in degree.

Medical education leads to the practical outcome of diagnosing and treating diseases of the human organism. The veterinarian follows a course of study which prepares him to treat the diseases of animals. The ophthalmologist and optometrist treat the human eye in one way or another. The watchmaker is taught to make and to repair watches. These practical courses differ one from another, but what they have in common is the fact that they prepare students to meet practical problems and to resolve them. So should general or liberal education prepare men and women to meet and to resolve practical life situations.

It is interesting to note that there is a definite trend in the direction of more effectively combining vocational or professional courses with so-called general or liberal courses of study. The implication is that such practical courses do not prepare students to meet all the practical situations they will be called upon to face in life. The doctors, veterinarians, ophthalmologists, engineers, and watchmakers must exercise citizenship responsibilities, civic duties, and personal obligations. The exercise of judgment in these areas is not less exacting than the exercise of judgment in the fields in which these practical men of affairs make a living and serve their fellowmen. Hence they combine their clearly defined practical courses with other practical courses. With respect to the former the goals are defined, but with respect to the latter we are still in the process of defining objectives.

It is the intent of this discussion to contribute to an understanding of the practical objectives of liberal education. Before making the attempt, we shall return to a review of the process of harrowing and selection of seed in this area of education which has been going on in academic circles. The modern instrument most generally used in this process is the

"committee." Some committees have attempted, in an inadequate sort of way, to define the outcomes or fruits of liberal education. In reviewing their reports it will be interesting to search for support for an instrumental theory of liberal education. How much we find will throw some light on where we stand with respect to following the ground, selecting and sowing the seed, and anticipating the harvest in this field.

A report entitled *Liberal Education Re-examined*,¹ submitted to the American Council of Learned Societies in 1943 by its Special Committee, rejects an instrumental or utilitarian theory of liberal education. For this committee, the chief end of liberal education is the promotion of the good life, defined as the greatest possible participation in the "intrinsic values" of truth, goodness, and beauty. While the committee holds that one cannot draw an absolute line between vocational education and professional education, it does seem to contend that what approaches an absolute line can be drawn between special education (vocational and professional) and liberal education, although the committee sees a relationship between the two. Vocational and professional education differ only in degree. Vocational education requires little thought and imagination, professional education requires more thought and imagination, and liberal education for the Committee seems to imply *only* thought and imagination.

The Committee nails to the mast what it considers to be a fact, namely, that special education and liberal education are different in essential respects and must not be confused or identified. Liberal education is its own reward. Insight is an end in itself. The liberal arts are ends in themselves. They are concerned with intrinsic values, not utility. That is to say, building a bridge, performing an appendectomy, curing a cow are practical outcomes of education; but acting so as to be healthy, choosing a symphony, discriminating between values, passing on social security benefits, electing a mayor or president, working for peace are not practical outcomes of educa-

¹ *Liberal Education Re-examined* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1943).

tion. Decisiveness in these latter areas is in some mysterious way related to the intrinsic values of truth, beauty, and goodness—in brief, the "good life." It is our contention that such a distinction between special and liberal education cannot be supported in fact.

In 1943 the Committee on the Restatement of the Nature and Aims of Liberal Education for the Commission on Liberal Education of the Association of American Colleges published its report on "The Post-War Responsibilities of Liberal Education."² The report defines a liberally educated person as follows:

... men and women *are* liberally educated to the degree that they are *literate* and *articulate* in verbal discourse, in the languages of the arts, and in the symbolic languages of science; *informed* concerning their physical, social, and spiritual environment and concerning their relationship thereto as individuals; *sensitive* to all the values that endow life with meaning and significance; and able to *understand* the present in the perspective of the past and the future, and to *decide and act* as responsible moral beings.

In the last clause of this excellent statement the committee suggests the germ of an instrumental theory of liberal education. The purpose of liberal education is to prepare students to "decide and act." The committee does not develop this theory. Rather, it goes on to define skills, abilities, and areas of knowledge and suggests that to be liberally educated is to understand facts and values in their relation to one another. It would have been better if the committee had said that to be liberally educated, understanding facts and values, is to decide and act in critical life situations. For the committee, to be liberally educated is to have characteristic habits and attitudes and to develop the whole man—mind and body, character and spirit. This is too general. In a sense the committee admits it, for it goes on to say that in a fundamental way liberal education "prepares men and women for the vocations and walks of life which they may be specifically

² *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XXIX (June, 1943), 412-31.

fitted to enter." This tends to confuse the relationship between liberal education and vocational education. They are related only because vocational education cannot fulfill all the practical needs of men and women and, therefore, liberal education must be added. But the practical aspect of liberal education can and must stand on its own feet.

In 1944 another important committee made its report. A subcommittee of the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government of the American Council on Education submitted *A Design for General Education for Members of the Armed Forces*.⁸ It should be noted that the committee uses the word "general" rather than "liberal." It distinguishes between the two terms as follows: "The purposes of general education should be contributory to those of a true liberal education; general education should be looked upon as an integral aspect of a full, liberal educational experience." This distinction tends to break down as the report is developed, as does also the distinction between a "design" for the armed forces and a "design" for men and women in general.

The committee defines general education as "phases of non-specialized and nonvocational education that should be the common possession, the common denominator, so to speak, of educated persons as individuals and as citizens in a free society." The committee agreed upon the broad areas that should be included in a general education. They are health, communication, social adjustment, family life, citizenship, science, literature, art, philosophy, and vocation.

The significant thing about this report is that the committee did not consider these elements to be areas of knowledge but "as the way in which educated men might properly be expected *to behave*" (*italics mine*). The fruits of the sowing were defined by the committee in terms of performance. These outcomes are analyzed in Part II of the report. They are defined in terms of "attitudes and appreciations" which

⁸ *A Design for General Education* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1944).

are the fruits of knowledge, understanding, skills, and abilities in each of the areas in which men and women live and move and have their being.

The instrumental theory of general education is given strong support by the committee. To attain a high level of performance, "an individual must possess a substantial amount of knowledge and understanding—not isolated facts, but information related in meaningful ways and used for definite purposes." The committee illustrates as follows: "to keep well, one should understand normal body functions in relation to sound health practice," and "one must put knowledge of the principles of health to work in proper habits of eating, sleeping, and exercise, if he is to keep well." In this theory one finds knowledge, understanding, skills, and abilities flowering in acts of good health practice. That *should* be the outcome of general education in this area of life; and if it is not, the student is not any more liberally educated than a doctor is professionally educated if he cannot diagnose and treat disease.

In 1945 the Harvard Committee, twelve outstanding men who lived with their subject for two years, gave to the world *General Education in a Free Society*.⁴ This report has attracted lively attention and discussion, partly because it was a Harvard report and partly because of its dynamic characteristics. It represents the most prodigious fallowing of the field of general education which has been made. Considerable attention is given in the report to the areas of knowledge in general education. One of its weaknesses, but not the only one, lies in its lack of concreteness in defining the outcomes of general education.

The report begins by discussing the growth of the schools, the impact of social change, the Jeffersonian and Jacksonian elements in education, and then moves on to search for intellectual unity in the educational process. The committee rejects unity based upon religious doctrines, the great writ-

⁴ *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1945).

ings of Western culture, a reliance on education to meet immediate problems and pragmatism based on science—a science that embraces values. As George D. Stoddard says in *Frontiers in Education*,⁵ look what has been cut from under our feet: "Religious dogma, the great books, the workaday world and the world of science—all in Harvard's big red ash can. . . ."

The committee seems to discover a vague kind of intellectual unity in the merger of heritage and change and in the merger of general education and specialized education. Concerning the former, the report holds that "education can therefore be wholly devoted neither to tradition nor to experiment, neither to the belief that the ideal in itself is enough nor to the view that means are valuable apart from the ideal."⁶ Concerning the latter, "these two sides of life (general and special) are not entirely separable, and it would be false to imagine education for the one quite distinct from education for the other. . . ." By general education the committee means that part of a student's education which makes him a responsible human being and citizen, and by special education it means that part of education which looks to the student's competence in some occupation. For the committee, general education and liberal education have identical goals. It agrees with the American Council committee that "the one may be thought of as an earlier stage of the other, similar in nature but less advanced in degree."

The real problem, reasoned the committee, is "how to save general education and its values within a system where specialism is necessary." This is the problem, but in the writer's opinion the committee does not do a great deal to save general education. General education, according to the report, is to be distinguished from special education, not by subject matter, but in terms of method and outlook. Moreover, general education is envisaged as an organic whole

⁵ George D. Stoddard, *Frontiers in Education* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1945).

⁶ *General Education in a Free Society*.

"whose parts join in expounding a ruling idea and in serving a common aim"—whatever that means!

For the committee, then, the outcomes of general education are traits of mind. They are to be able *to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values*. The first goal is dismissed by the American Council Committee as being the product of all education. So! One sharpens the edge of his mind on special as well as general subjects. The second goal is likewise desirable, but its promulgation will scarcely defend general education within a system of specialism.

The committee may well have given more attention to the last two goals which it assigns to general education. In their consideration lies the defense of general or liberal education. What the committee has to say about them is helpful. In making relative judgments, we bring "to bear the whole range of ideas upon the area of experience"; we resolve concrete situations; we make the transition from thought to action. This splendid contribution is spoiled when the committee contends that "the translation from theory to practice involves an art all its own." This contention implies an art which cannot be taught, and such a point of view is one of the fallacies that has made general education difficult to defend.

With respect to discrimination among values the committee is clear. Such discrimination involves choice, and it also involves a knowledge of the relations of values. This much will be readily acceptable to the majority of educators; but when the report contends that some of the objectives of general education are to give students a knowledge of values, to lead to a commitment to them, and to the embodiment of them in their actions, feelings, and thought, it is handing out strong diet. But such a transition from theory to practice seems to be the only adequate justification for education in any field. There is no more of an art involved in making the translation from theory to practice in liberal education than there is in making the translation from the theoretical study of medicine to performing an operation for gallstones. Why, then, all the fanfare about liberal education? Its objectives

are to give men and women knowledge and understanding, skills and abilities, discrimination and powers of evaluation with respect to personal and social problems which arise in the practical business of living in our complicated civilization.

THE MEANING AND CHALLENGE OF CRISIS

The writer has come to the conclusion that the key word in liberal education, as well as in all other types of education, is the word *crisis*. Man is at his best in times of crisis. As Harry Emerson Fosdick, one of the most practical idealists of this generation, says, "No person has any more power than he can explode in a crisis." It is difficulties that pull the trigger. What this trigger explodes depends upon what we are loaded with. And this theory can be applied to any area of life—even to the arts. The selection of paintings for our home, books for our library, records for our phonograph, furniture for our living room, programs for our radio—all involve critical judgments. The choice of leaders for our Congress, mayors for our cities, amendments to our Constitution, legislation for our statute books, policies for our international relations, plans for our slums, programs for our youth, companions for our fireside—all represent critical situations in which we must decide and act. A specialized engineering education is not called for here because we are not concerned with bridges and turbines, but carefully planned general education or liberal education is called for since these problems are likewise compelling and practical, even though some of them call for an understanding of the arts and of values.

If what we have said is true, if man is at his best in times of crisis, it is under these conditions that we should study him. But to understand man under any set of conditions, we must first of all understand the conditions. What, then, is the meaning of crisis? As we might expect, it comes from the Greek. In fact, it is the Greek word *krisis*. It means a separating, a decision, a judgment. It is related to the Latin word *cernere*, which means to separate, to distinguish, to decide. It is the turning point, a very critical time or occasion. In the course of a disease it is a matter of life or death. At

the time of crisis, one's life or destiny is fixed, settled, determined. It is unquestionable, indisputable, and certain. In the Greek it means the whole business of judgment—even the final judgment.

Because the word crisis is one of the most dynamic words in our language—or any language for that matter—its very application to any situation calls for the best that man has to offer. In time of crisis a man must distinguish, he must decide, he must pass judgment. If he cannot make up his mind, the change will take place anyway. A crisis is as certain as life or death.

The Chinese have two characters which they use to convey their meaning of crisis. One of these symbols means danger, and the other means challenge. From these concepts we get the true meaning of the word. When there are no alternatives to decision, when change is inevitable, there is danger lurking in our presence. It is then that challenge rings its clarion call. Danger is dissipated only if we separate the elements involved, distinguish among them, and judge profoundly and accurately. Only thus can change be made to serve man rather than that man shall be subservient to inevitable change.

No apology is made for the dramatic way in which the subject of crisis has thus far been explored. Everything concerning a crisis is dynamic, dramatic, and explosive. The concepts of life and death, determination and destiny, indisputability and certainty, danger and challenge—all are present in one's mind as he contemplates its meaning. A crisis is where the known past and the unpredictable future converge in the stormy present. To repeat, it is here that inevitable change is either bridled, controlled, and made to serve individual and social ends, or else it brushes the human element aside and pursues its relentless course.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL CRISIS

Strictly speaking, there is no such thing as a social crisis. What we are inclined to call a crisis in society is in reality a

multiplicity of personal crises which many people are called upon to face simultaneously. Leaders emerge in a social crisis, to be sure, but each follower faces and accepts his hour of decision when he places his destiny in the hands of his leader. That is what makes any follower responsible for the leadership he accepts; and that is what makes bad leadership so heinous and good leadership so glorious.

There is no way for the individual to escape the guilt or glory of a social crisis. That is why there is no such thing as the world standing aside for the man who knows whither he is going. If a leader emerges who knows whither he is going and if his goal is a worthy one, the "world" will have made him a leader, and the individuals of his world will have made up their minds to follow him. This is particularly true in a democracy in which responsible citizenship is the price of liberty. No responsible leader will submerge the individual conscience nor destroy the individual's right to the discretionary power to choose the path he will follow.

A social crisis, therefore, is laden with danger and challenge, but the dangers inherent in the situation and the challenge imposed by it are shared alike by the leader and the followers. This is as unalterable as the crisis itself. It is not the social crisis which must be resolved; it is the individual crises which must be separated, distinguished, decided.

PRACTICAL GOALS

If crisis is taken to mean a time for critical decision and action, then the whole of life, including the vocations and the professions, is made up of a procession of critical situations. Liberal education should be so planned that men and women are equipped to accept the danger and the challenge of crises and to resolve them. This makes liberal education the most practical kind of education in the world. It can be illustrated a thousand ways, but let us take just one so-called social crisis. The greatest crisis of our day and generation is the crisis which has arisen over the conflict between war and peace.

We have learned at least one costly lesson from the hor-

rible conflict which has just closed, namely, that peace is not passive. Even the word "pacifist" is not passive. It is a word denoting action. It comes from two Latin words, *pax* and *facio*. It means *peacemaker*. It calls for strong, intelligent, moral action. Peace also calls for passionate activity aimed at the analysis and treatment of the causes of war and the destruction of the power to wage war on the part of unscrupulous peoples. Peace cannot be waged by leaders alone any more than war can be waged by the generals alone. Vast hordes of individuals must have a will to maintain peace and a will to forge the weapons of peace. The strategy and operations of war and the strategy and operations of peace are in eternal conflict. Thus far, war has won because its weapons have been sharp while the weapons of peace have been dull. We are in process now of sharpening the weapons of peace on the anvils of our minds and consciences and in the council chambers of the nations. The crisis of war itself has passed, but the crisis of peace still hovers between life and death. Responsible citizens must meet this crisis.

While learned committees debate endlessly the nature and content of liberal education, men and women, and particularly youth, stand in need of an educational experience which will enable them to meet practical problems and situations upon the solution and resolution of which depend their own destiny and the destiny of the world. But just as the dangers of life are obvious, so also are the challenges. Crises are like that. We have pointed out, moreover, that in the final analysis there is no such thing as a social crisis. This fact in a democracy is fundamental. Intelligent and responsible citizenship is the price of liberty. This paper has been written to say that again. It is not new but its challenge is new, for we are now in process of revolution. We are at the end of an era, and another is struggling to be born. We are in the stormy present, facing the unpredictable future, and liberal education holds the key in such a crisis—but only as it turns its attention to practical goals.

Damage Suits against Universities

By M. M. CHAMBERS

THE LAW TOUCHING the liability of educational institutions for damages in tort is in a yeasty condition. Among nine recent cases reaching the higher courts of the states, there were five in which the judgments of lower tribunals were reversed. Out of five states where privately controlled universities or corporations for related educational purposes were defendants, in only two was the hoary doctrine of immunity for charitable institutions successfully invoked and then in a somewhat restricted guise.

PRIVATELY CONTROLLED INSTITUTIONS: TEXAS

Southern Methodist University at Dallas was sued for injuries sustained by a woman patron at a football game where temporary bleachers collapsed. On her behalf it was alleged that the bleachers were crowded beyond their capacity and that they were faultily constructed of materials which had been allowed to become old, weakened, and defective. A further allegation that the university employee who managed the bleachers was incompetent was at first a part of the pleadings but was withdrawn early in the proceedings. The trial court directed a verdict for the university and entered judgment accordingly, holding (1) that negligence had not been proved and (2) that the university was immune as a charitable corporation.

The court of civil appeals reversed and remanded the decision, directing that the question of negligence must be put to the jury. This court said:

In Texas a charitable institution's responsibility in tort is measured by the relationship existing toward the injured party. To those directly receiving benefits, such as a hospital patient, university student, or other direct recipient, the liability is only for want of ordinary care in the selection and retention of employees or servants. To others not thus

directly benefited, such as invitees, strangers, or its own employees, liability is wholly governed by the rule of *respondant superior*

The paying visitor at the football game was in this latter category; and this intermediate court asserted the unqualified doctrine that "Charitable institutions are on the same basis as other corporations and individuals as to liability for negligence to those who are non-beneficiaries."

But no, said the Texas supreme court when the case came up on appeal. Conceding only that "it seems definitely established in this state that a charity corporation is liable to an employee for injuries proximately caused by the negligence of its officers, vice principals, or agents," the supreme court denied that the principle applied to invitees or strangers on the premises. Retreating to the classic theory of immunity on grounds of public policy, it expounded the well-known argument that funds dedicated to a public charitable purpose must not be diverted to compensate for a mere private grievance, and reiterated that the injured party has recourse against the individual responsible for the injury. If this individual is insolvent, too bad; but "the courts can not undertake to provide a solvent defendant for every wrong done." Thus the trial court judgment absolving the university was affirmed by the highest Texas court.¹

The same conclusion was reached in a subsequent case involving the Rice Institute at Houston, where a girl spectator at a football game in Rice Stadium caught the high heel of her shoe in the crack between the planks of the platform near her seat so that she fell and received severe injuries. The jury returned a verdict for \$20,000 damages to the girl and \$500 to her father, but the trial court rendered judgment for the defendant institute notwithstanding the verdict, and this judgment was affirmed by the court of civil appeals, expressly following the precedent set by the supreme court.²

¹ *Southern Methodist University v. Clayton*, 142 Tex. 179, 176 S. W. (2d) 749 (1944), reversing (Tex. Civ. App.) 172 S. W. (2d) 197 (1943).

² *Scott et al. v. William M. Rice Institute*, (Tex. Civ. App.), 178 S. W. (2d) 156 (1944).

NEW YORK AND CALIFORNIA

When New York University was sued by a student who alleged he was injured by reason of defective instructional equipment and failure of the university to provide proper safeguards, the university answered that it was a charitable institution and that the negligence, if any, was of the professor in charge. The trial court held this answer insufficient in law and the appellate division approved this ruling and dismissed an appeal.³ This meant, of course, that the doctrine of charitable immunity is not a complete defense in New York and that the university must make further answer or lose by default.

A similar outcome appeared in California, where a student at Stanford University was seriously injured while participating in the annual "clean-up day" at a convalescent home on the campus, in accord with university custom. He was riding in the rear part of a pick-up truck on the way back to the academic campus, through a portion of the extensive university lands along San Francisquito Creek, when he was shot in the eye with a "BB gun" by an unknown boy along the road, causing loss of the eye. In the trial court he was met with a judgment of nonsuit; but the court of appeal reversed the judgment and held that the question of whether the university exercised due care in keeping its grounds safe should have gone to the jury. In this instance the court was impressed by testimony in the record that although the 9,000-acre campus was a game refuge and hunting was forbidden, the use of BB guns and small rifles by boys in the vicinity where the injury occurred was known to have been promiscuous for two years or more. This seemed to raise serious question as to the efficiency of the campus policing, and it was disclosed that when the injury occurred, only one campus policeman was on duty.⁴

³ *Wellman v. New York University*, 264 App. Div. 907, 35 N. Y. S. (2d) 892 (1942).

⁴ *Stockwell v. Board of Trustees of Leland Stanford Junior University*, (Cal. App.), 149 P. (2d) 405 (1944).

STATE INSTITUTIONS: TEXAS AND NEW YORK

A laborer employed by the Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College at one of its experiment stations was given a spray pump and instructed to spray a building. He claimed that by reason of a defect in the pump liquid was squirted into his eye, causing loss of the eye. The trial court sustained a general exception to his petition, but the court of civil appeals thought the case should go back for trial, declaring with vigor: "The proposition that the State owes to an employee the nondelegable duties of an employer is sustained by justice, logic, and authoritative precedent"; and, "The right of control and direction should not be conferred without some legal obligation in respect thereto." The next higher court, however, elected to stand on the well-worn doctrine of the immunity of the state while engaged in the performance of its governmental functions. Accordingly, it reversed the decision of the court of civil appeals and affirmed the judgment of the trial court, thus leaving the injured man with no remedy as against the state.⁵

Another demonstration of state immunity was made by a Texas court when a claimant, seeking to get possession of two tracts of land held by the University of Texas and damages for four months' rental aggregating \$600, brought a statutory action of trespass to try title. Dismissal of the suit was affirmed by the court of civil appeals, using the following words and reasoning: "The University and the Board of Regents are institutions of the State, and neither has any existence independent of the State . . . Property belonging to the University of Texas is the property of the State." Therefore, the state would be a necessary party to the suit, and the court was without jurisdiction to hear it unless the pleadings contained an allegation and showing of consent by the state to be sued.⁶

⁵ *State v. Morgan*, (Tex. Com. App.), 170 S. W. (2d) 652 (1943), reversing (Tex. Civ. App.), 170 S. W. (2d) 648 (1943).

⁶ *Walsh v. University of Texas*, (Tex. Civ. App.), 169 S. W. (2d) 993 (1943).

New York again affords an example of a less harsh theory. A Syracuse city policeman was injured on property of the New York State College of Forestry adjacent to Syracuse University, while performing his duties in keeping order and preventing rowdyism at a night football game. He was part of a detail of thirty policemen sent to the premises at the request of the university. While posting his men at strategic points outside the stadium at about seven o'clock, before the floodlights had been turned on, he proceeded on foot at a moderate pace on a macadam roadway alongside the stadium. Unknown to him, a heavy chain had been stretched across the road, and in the darkness he fell over it and was injured. There was no light or other warning signal at or near the chain. The road was on the campus of the State College of Forestry, and the key to the chain was in possession of the dean or other employee of the college.

On first hearing of the injured man's claim, the case was dismissed for lack of technical compliance with provisions of the Court of Claims Act; but the legislature enacted a statute in 1943 authorizing the court to hear and determine the case notwithstanding. When the case eventually came for decision on the merits, an award of damages was made. Said the court of claims: "The State as well as the university owed to the claimant, in the performance of his requested duties, the exercise of reasonable care in the maintenance of its premises."⁷ This is in vivid contrast with the Texas holdings already noted.

RELATED CASES: MICHIGAN AND OHIO

Edison Institute is the corporate name of the philanthropic undertaking through which Henry Ford maintains an extensive museum of early American history. It is a nonprofit corporation "to demonstrate, for educational purposes, the development of American arts, sciences, customs and institutions by reproducing or re-enacting the conditions and circumstances

⁷ *Leahy v. State*, (N. Y. Ct. Claims), 46 N. Y. S. (2d) 310 (1944).

of such developmet in any manner calculated to convey a realistic picture thereof." The museum, known as Greenfield Village, near Dearborn, Michigan, represented an investment of some \$20,000,000 in land, buildings, and equipment. When the present case arose in 1936, the place was open to the public at a fee of 25 cents for adults, and children were admitted free. There was a virtually negligible income from small sales of products made in the museum. Annual operating deficits were personally paid by Henry Ford or members of his family, who were the sole stockholders.

A part of the service to visitors was free transportation in a horse-drawn carriage on the premises. The plaintiff in this case used that service, and as she alighted from the carriage, the horses took fright at a violent thunderstorm then in progress, bolted, and caused her to be injured. Her case first went to trial before a jury on the facts alone, and there was a verdict for \$1,000 damages. The trial court, upon subsequent proof of the nature of the defendant corporation, rendered judgment in favor of the defendant, *non obstante verdicto*. This judgment, absolving the institute, was affirmed by the supreme court of Michigan. There was no evidence of negligence in selecting and retaining the driver, the team, or the carriage; and "the law is well settled in this State that a charitable institution is not liable to a beneficiary for the torts of its servants, unless it was negligent in the selection and retention of the employees and the instrumentalities used by it in carrying on its benevolent purposes."⁸ Note the resemblance to the Texas decisions.

An apparent leaning toward the more liberal camp was exhibited by the supreme court of Ohio, where two children were injured at the zoölogical park maintained by the Cleveland Museum of Natural History. For the amusement and edification of visitors, the zoo offered short rides in a howdah on the back of Osa, the elephant. Although the zoo had in its employ an experienced elephant handler, it allowed these

⁸ *De Groot v. Edison Institute*, 306 Mich. 339, 10 N. W. (2d) 907 (1943).

rides to be conducted by a keeper who knew little about elephants and was equipped only with an elephant hook not in good condition for the purpose. On the day of the accident, one of the passengers on one of the rides was a lady who, shortly after beginning the ride, demanded and was permitted to dismount immediately, saying she knew elephants very well and there was something wrong with Osa. The plaintiff children were thereupon put aboard, and Osa, suddenly tired of the whole business, bolted for the elephant-house, scraping off howdah and children unceremoniously as she entered the door, thus causing the injuries.

In the trial court verdicts and judgments for each of the plaintiffs were had, but these were reversed by the court of appeals. In turn the Ohio supreme court reversed the court of appeals and affirmed the judgments of the trial court, on the theory that the verdicts were not against the weight of the evidence, and even though the owner of the elephant was a charitable institution, it was liable for lack of ordinary care in assigning an employee to handle and control the animal.⁹

Erosion of the harsh common-law doctrines of charitable immunity and "the king can do no wrong" is taking place, but its progress is slow and inconclusive. It is conceivable that the trend may be overtaken by an expansion of the application of social insurance to cover all injuries to innocent parties by state or charitable institutions. There is already partial coverage under workmen's compensation laws. The extension of humane provisions of that nature is not, of course, the function of courts, but of legislatures.

⁹ *Newman v. Cleveland Museum of Natural History*, 143 Ohio St. 369, 55 N. E. (2d) 575 (1944).

The Rural Community and Its Young People in a New Era*

By LATHAM HATCHER

IN 1946 AMERICA's people of farm, village, and small city have unprecedented opportunities involving difficult community responsibilities. Many of their young men and women have returned from the armed services and from war industries in urban centers. Some will fit themselves into the familiar home surroundings; others will look for careers elsewhere. This is the crucial year of "reconversion."

The ten-year-olds of 1940 now approach the threshold of adulthood; and war, in its immemorial way, has brought a substantial increase in birth rates, a "bumper crop" of little ones who will be the nation's youth of 1960 and beyond. Thus, when the rural community looks at its young people today and with an eye to future decades, it sees new aspects of a matter which has always been as old as the race, yet is as new as a 1946 baby.

All national agencies concerned with young people recognize that the local community, making the best possible use of its own resources and its own leadership, is the indispensable element in national strength and culture.

Whether it be crossroads' hamlet, or village of several hundred persons; or town of several thousand, the place called home by the rural young persons has not only heavy responsibilities but also great natural advantages in providing

* The Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth, of which the author of this article was president, sponsored an Institute on War and Postwar Problems of Rural Youth Migration in Washington, D. C., May 18-19, 1944. Representatives of numerous national governmental and voluntary agencies and of some state and local agencies participated. The full report of the institute was not published on account of wartime exigencies. The present brief statement, drawn largely from the institute's deliberations, presents such parts as are applicable in 1946 and thereafter.

guidance and opportunity for its own youth. Here the young have the support and well-wishing of parents and relatives, the ties of childhood friendships, the good will of neighboring farmers and business men, the helpful aspirations of teachers and pastors.

Although there is a dearth of adult social and professional workers in the smallest rural centers, the school and the church are institutions accessible in nearly every neighborhood, no matter how small or remote. In every such place the need and opportunity of expanding their services to the young people within their reach are at hand. In a community too small to have local offices of the numerous national and statewide agencies concerned with opportunities for young people, a voluntary channel of contact with them can be of much benefit.

Some teacher, preacher, or member of a farm organization or club can take the initiative in becoming a local focus for inquiry to the nearest offices of the public employment service, the agricultural extension service, the state or county departments of health and of education, the Selective Service System, the Veterans Administration, and other specialized national, state, and county agencies, all of which are anxious to make their services as helpful as possible in small communities.

Important as it is, merely putting the neighborhood into contact with nationwide and statewide services is not enough. The community must know its own young people as a whole. It must match their capabilities and needs with its own resources and opportunities to the limit. It must study its own future and make bold and sensible plans for itself five, ten, twenty years ahead.

True, it may have a surplus of young people for whom there will be no neighborhood prospects, and some of these will not want to remain but will migrate and pursue their careers elsewhere. To these the community has special obligations which we shall soon observe. But there are also the youth who will stay and will be the adults and seniors in

the same locality through the ensuing decades. What the tenor of local life and culture will be in the next generation, they to a considerable degree will determine.

The local focus of inquiry, whatever organization or individual it may be, can greatly enhance its service by maintaining an up-to-date list of its young people. In that manner it can be cognizant of the village boy who wants a local farm job, of the high school girl of rare talents but dire poverty who needs a scholarship or loan for college, of the returned soldier and his bride who want an opportunity on a small farm or in a small business, of its many boys and girls who want to attend a public junior college, of how many are planning to migrate, and when and whither, what they want in employment or in education, and a thousand like matters of the utmost community concern.

Let there be a center of such information and activity, spearheaded by a leading local organization or individual; let it draw about itself an advisory and supporting committee representative of all major interests and of the young people, too. There you have community organization for youth in simple and effective terms.

Much can be done by volunteer efforts on the part of unpaid part-time workers such as teachers, pastors, housewives, or retired persons. But efficiency and continuity of service can hardly be assured until sufficient support has been mustered to provide for full-time paid personnel, with adequate quarters and equipment. In rural localities a relatively small outlay of money is often sufficient to provide for these essentials, and they give high promise of being worth more than their cost in terms of substantial service to a few hundred young persons and to the community as a whole.

This is the bare outline of a form of rural social service neglected or channeled into other forms during the emergency of war. It was fully envisioned by many persons before the emergency and is now doubly opportune because of the release of millions of young men and women from the armed services and from war industries.

THE HEALTH OF RURAL YOUTH

The false notion that rural people are healthier and freer from physical defects than city dwellers dates from the nineteenth century when municipal sanitation and health services were in their infancy and has been repeatedly disproved. The war emergency furnishes the most recent evidence. Farm youths eighteen and nineteen years old showed the highest Selective Service rejection rate among all occupational groups—about 40 percent. Two of every five of these rural young men were unfit for military service.

The causes behind the facts are well known and not far to seek. Nutritional deficiencies, lack of household sanitary facilities, insufficient health instruction, dearth of physicians and nurses are among them. Retrogression has been considerable during the past five years, due to such obvious and unavoidable reasons as the heavy draining of physicians, dentists, and nurses into the armed services, the impossibility of obtaining materials and labor for the construction or manufacture of sanitary equipment, new housing, and medical facilities on the scale needed, and general preoccupation with the basic production demands of a great war for national survival.

Now comes a wave of young men returning after sojourns in many parts of the world, from the tropics and the Arctic, from the Orient and the Mediterranean, and from devastated lands teeming with the suffering and excesses of beaten and demoralized armies and the indescribable hardships of oppressed civilian populations and displaced peoples. Health problems are always accentuated by migrations. Fortunately the enormous wartime shifting of population within the United States has produced no great epidemics nor any immediately patent serious increase in disease and disability.

Current professional opinion is that the danger of the introduction of tropical diseases could easily be overestimated; but malaria relapses will have to be reckoned with, especially in parts of this country where malaria control is a perennial

problem. Certainly renewed and redoubled activity against these two scourges of youth and young adults—tuberculosis and the venereal diseases—is indicated.

Migration to rural America carries with it one promising prospect related to the health of the nation. Young men who have become accustomed to the superb standards of the armed services in nutrition, physical training, and medical care, and men and women who have experienced the relatively high level of sanitation, feeding, and general health care in war industries and in modern cities will not be satisfied with the lack of these things in their home neighborhoods. This augurs well for the improvement of health conditions in many rural areas. The necessity now is to crystallize and activate local opinion everywhere to procure trained medical and health personnel, hospitals, and clinics and to devise practicable schemes for equitable distribution of the costs of medical care and effective health education programs.

The tenor of the times, emanating from solid facts, indicates that there will be places for increased numbers of physicians, dentists, and public health specialists as the standards of medical care and public health inevitably rise.

Regarding physically handicapped persons, one of the lessons taught by the war, with its stringency of manpower, was that we can use *all* the people to do *all* the work. The concept of rejection—the cruel idea of the human “scrap heap”—had to go. Persons with defects often have superior special abilities, and jobs can be so specialized and organized that these abilities often enable handicapped individuals to surpass normal persons as producers. Someone has wisely remarked that it is necessary only to think of individuals in terms of capacities instead of limitations. What an implication for the future of disabled veterans and others in like situations!

EDUCATION, GUIDANCE, PLACEMENT

Bearing in mind always that technological advances will continue to increase the productivity of manpower in agriculture, we must never lose sight of the fact that many rural

young people must go into nonagricultural occupations. Therefore, the problem of rural youth guidance is a double-barreled one. All are entitled to a good general education up to levels commensurate with their capacities and reasonable ambitions. To those who look to careers in rural regions, the obligation is to support and expand the existing provisions for vocational education in the operation and management of farms, in homemaking and child care, and in rural service occupations. These latter cover a tremendous range, from the practice of medicine and numerous other rural social service professions (teaching, school administration, library service, recreation leadership, agricultural extension work, to name only a few) to such occupations as electrical installation and repair, farm machinery service, radio shop and beauty parlor services. Rising standards of rural living will bring increased demands for local services of these and many other types.

In rebuilding education for those who are committed to rural life, of great importance are the elements which will afford them a conditioning for rural family living and community leadership in the latter half of the twentieth century. It is thus that the foundations will be laid for a vital and constantly rising rural culture, preserving and developing many values inherent in the way of life on the land, no matter how far industrialization may proceed or what swift and unforeseen technological changes may bring.

The age-old accumulation of values in rural living at its best, as "felt in the bones" of nearly every person of rural origin, must not deteriorate. The traditional stability, resourcefulness, simplicity, directness, and redoubtability of the man or woman of the land is at the heart of the heritage of local liberty which has been a beacon to oppressed peoples for many generations. The adaptation of this tradition to swiftly changing modern times does not mean its obliteration. The shrinking of distance calls for the enlargement of units of local government, and the concentration of incorporeal wealth requires that these units be provided increasingly with

financial assistance and other services by the states and the nation as a whole; but no one supposes that local initiative can or should be dispensed with or that local control should be devitalized. It needs only to be organized in units of proper size and in proper relationship to the larger society.

History demonstrates that in any postwar period there is danger of a popular reaction stemming from war-weariness, producing a certain nostalgic lassitude and lack of interest in bold and positive steps toward actively using and improving the social services—a tendency to drift and avoid the effort involved in reconstructive measures. There are many hopeful signs that in this era the reaction can be made less overpowering and less harmful than ever before.

Universities, colleges, and vocational schools are keenly awake to the obligation to make room and create offerings for qualified returning veterans; public school systems and state departments of education are aware of the necessity of providing schools and classes for veterans to the limit of practicability. The time is ripe for a great increase in the number of local public junior colleges, placing opportunity for suitable types of terminal vocational and subtechnical schooling as well as liberal and subprofessional education in the midst of hundred of communities, accessible and within easy commuting distance of rural young men and women, veterans and nonveterans.

Young veterans who have had less than two years in college and who choose to utilize the educational benefits offered by the federal government may well avoid overcrowding the great universities and address themselves instead to reputable small colleges or junior colleges, public or private, near their own homes. In areas having a sufficient population base which are without such facilities, young veterans may well demand that they be established, with an eye to immediate needs as well as to the needs of their own children a decade or two hence.

The same type of local alertness and aggressiveness can be a large factor in establishing full employment. Important as

are national and state planning, legislation, and execution toward that goal, these efforts will operate under an insuperable handicap if local communities are apathetic. They will operate with the aid of a powerful ground-swell impetus if the people of local neighborhoods vigilantly and efficiently exhaust every possibility of finding and creating local jobs.

The interdependence of education, health, recreation, employment, and general economic conditions is indissoluble, as is also the interdependence of institutions and agencies, public and private, at the national, state, and local levels. We have made much progress in cooperative functioning of governmental units at all these levels, and in wisely enmeshing the nongovernmental agencies in the total scheme. We must go farther. At the base is the local rural community, with its double obligation to obtain all the aids and services from the larger units and to keep them plugged in at the grass roots, and to build and correlate its own social inventions according to its own plans, with its own leadership and its own resources.

The Council at Work

THE Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring additional information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

At its meeting in Washington on February 9-10, the Problems and Policies Committee discussed at considerable length a number of matters, including the following: continuation of the Selective Service Act, a possible new national defense act, universal military training, research on a national scale, teacher education, social security and education, UNESCO, educational reconstruction in Germany and Austria, educational rehabilitation in the devastated countries, and a proposed federal department of education, health, and welfare. Several guests, particularly familiar with the subjects under discussion, were present at the meeting. The committee made a number of recommendations to the Executive Committee on these subjects, which appear in the minutes of the meeting of that committee.

The meeting of the Executive Committee on February 16 was also held in Washington at the offices of the Council. The minutes of this meeting have been circulated to the members of the Council. At that meeting the chairman was authorized to appoint a nominating committee to recommend a slate

of officers for the Council and new members of the Executive Committee, to be elected by the Council at the annual meeting on May 3-4 next. The chairman later appointed the following persons as members of the nominating committee for 1946: James L. Hanley, superintendent of schools, Providence, Rhode Island, chairman; Einar W. Jacobsen, president, University of Louisville; W. W. Pierson, secretary, Association of American Universities. The chairman of the nominating committee will be glad to receive suggestions from Council members.

TWENTY-NINTH ANNUAL MEETING

The preliminary program for the 1946 annual meeting of the Council on May 3-4, 1946, was mailed to members on March 15. Special attention was called to the need for making hotel reservations at the Stevens Hotel thirty days in advance of the meeting. Notice was also given of five proposed amendments to the Constitution of the Council, as required by the provisions of the Constitution. The Council officers hope for a large meeting of the membership. It is also hoped that the meeting of the delegates from constituent member organizations, scheduled for May 2 at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, will be well attended.

MEMBERSHIP

The following new members of the Council were formally accepted at the meeting of the Executive Committee on February 16:

Constituent

Mathematical Association of America

National Safety Council

(The Association of Governing Boards of State Universities and Allied Institutions, whose application was approved in advance of completion on October 6, 1945, has completed its application for constituent membership.)

Associate

Educational Film Library Association, Inc.

Institutional

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Albany State College, Albany, Georgia
 Alverno Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
 Atlantic Union College, South Lancaster, Massachusetts
 Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, New York¹
 Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach, Florida
 Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois
 Briarcliff College, Sioux City, Iowa
 Catawba College, Salisbury, North Carolina²
 Central College, Conway, Arkansas
 Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma³
 The Citadel, Charleston, South Carolina
 Dillard University, New Orleans, Louisiana
 Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Washington
 Glenville State College, Glenville, West Virginia
 Hofstra College, Hempstead, Long Island
 LeMoyne College, Memphis, Tennessee
 Loras College, Dubuque, Iowa
 Mary Hardin-Baylor College, Belton, Texas
 Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg, Mississippi
 McPherson College, McPherson, Kansas
 Mount Saint Mary's College, Hooksett, New Hampshire
 Mount St. Scholastica College, Atchison, Kansas
 New York State Teachers College, Brockport, New York
 New York State Teachers College, Plattsburg, New York
 Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois
 Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota
 Northwestern State College, Alva, Oklahoma
 Pennsylvania State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania
 Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota
 Superior State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin
 Talladega College, Talladega, Alabama

¹ Renewal of membership held some years ago in name of St. Stephens College.

² Renewal.

³ Subscribing membership.

United States Military Academy, West Point, New York
Vermont Junior College, Montpelier, Vermont
Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green,
Kentucky²
West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, West Virginia
Youngstown College, Youngstown, Ohio

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Louisiana State Department of Education³
Nebraska State Department of Public Instruction

CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Gary Public Schools, Gary, Indiana
Lansing Public Schools, Lansing, Michigan
Newark Board of Education, Newark, New Jersey
Syracuse Department of Public Instruction, Syracuse, New York

PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Emma Willard School, Troy, New York

Since the meeting of the Executive Committee several applications for membership have been received. These will be presented to the Committee at its next meeting on May 2, 1946. The membership of the Council as of February 16, 1946, is as follows:

Constituent members	64
Associate members	51
Institutional members	769
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Total	884

STAFF

Richard W. Burkhardt, of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University, has accepted an assignment to direct a study of the treatment of the Soviet Union in textbooks and other teaching materials used in the United States. Mr. Burkhardt began his work on February 1 and expects to complete the study by September 1, 1946.

Frederick B. Davis, who was a member of the staff of the

Cooperative Test Service of the Council before entering the armed forces, has come to Washington to conduct a study of the classification of personnel in the armed services and its implications for civilian education. This study is one of the activities of the Commission on the Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. Mr. Davis served in the Aviation Psychology Branch of the Army Air Forces during the war period.

E. D. Grizzell, professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania, has accepted the directorship of the survey of the elementary and secondary schools of the state of Delaware, which is being conducted by the Council. Mr. Grizzell began his work on February 15.

Robert M. Ball, formerly on the legislative planning staff and the training staff of the Social Security Board, has become the assistant director of the Committee on Education and Social Security. Earlier Mr. Ball was manager of one of the Social Security Board field offices. He was graduated from Wesleyan University where he also received a master's degree in economics.

GRANTS

The following new grants have been made to the Council since the issuance of the January number of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*:

AMERICAN FOUNDATION FOR PHARMACEUTICAL EDUCATION:

\$95,650 for a three-year study of pharmaceutical education.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION:

\$75,000 for support of the project relating to the recognition of training and educational courses in the armed forces in schools and colleges.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE:

\$1,000 for support of a study of the treatment accorded the Soviet Union in textbooks and other teaching materials used in the United States.

DELAWARE SCHOOL SURVEY COMMISSION:

\$19,230 for a survey of the elementary and secondary schools of Delaware.

GRANT FOUNDATION:

\$20,000 for a book on measurement and guidance to be edited by E. F. Lindquist.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF AMERICAN-SOVIET FRIENDSHIP, INC.:

\$4,000 for support of a study of the treatment accorded the Soviet Union in textbooks and other teaching materials used in the United States.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHRISTIANS AND JEWS:

\$75,000 over a three-year period for the work of the College Study in Intergroup Relations of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

\$6,600 for the work of the Committee on Intercultural Relations of the National Council of Teachers of English.

MEETINGS OF STANDING COMMITTEES OF THE COUNCIL

The following Council committees have held meetings since the issuance of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD* in January, 1946:

Committee on Education and Social Security, January 3, and March 25; Washington

Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, January 7 and February 17-18; Washington

Committee on Teaching Materials in Intergroup Relations, January 24-26; Washington

Committee on Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, January 18-19; New York

Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, January 25-26; Washington

Problems and Policies Committee, February 9-10, Washington

Executive Committee, February 16; Washington

Committee on the College Study in Intergroup Relations, February 20-22; Cleveland

Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, February 22-24; Cleveland

Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, March 4; Washington

CONFERENCES OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE CONSTITUENT MEMBER ORGANIZATIONS

On January 14 the representatives of the constituent member associations of the Council who reside in the Washington area met at the Council office to discuss common problems and possible items for the agenda of the meeting of constituent members which is scheduled for May 2, 1946. A similar meeting was held in Chicago on January 18, of the representatives from that area. It is hoped that a meeting can be called before the meeting in May, of representatives of constituent members who are located in the New York area.

EDUCATIONAL REHABILITATION IN DEVASTATED COUNTRIES

On March 11-12 a group of persons representing twenty educational associations gathered in Washington, at the invitation of the Council, to consider the contribution which voluntary educational organizations could make to supplement government agencies in rehabilitating education in devastated countries. Representatives of the Department of State and the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration participated in the discussion. Among the subjects considered were the activities and limitations of UNRRA, the relationships between UNRRA and UNESCO, and the interdependence of physical, intellectual, and spiritual needs in the rebuilding process. A statement setting forth suggestions agreed upon by the conferees was adopted and presented to the appropriate government agencies for their consideration.

The conference recommended the organization of a central coordinating committee, consisting of individuals interested in education and representative of education at all levels, for the promotion of educational rehabilitation in devastated countries through the voluntary agencies. The committee would be appointed by the American Council on Education in con-

sultation with member organizations and other educational groups.

PHARMACEUTICAL EDUCATION

Since 1929 certain leaders in the field of pharmaceutical education have had under consideration the need for a comprehensive study in that area. Through the years the Council has participated in these discussions. As a result of these prolonged conferences, the American Foundation for Pharmaceutical Education has recently granted funds to the Council for a three-year study of pharmacy and pharmaceutical services. A director of the study will be chosen shortly and the study will begin in the near future.

THE SOVIET UNION IN UNITED STATES TEACHING MATERIALS

On two occasions in the past, committees of the Council have undertaken studies of textbooks and other teaching materials to ascertain the treatment accorded certain other nations, namely, the Latin-American countries and Canada. A grant recently received has enabled the Council to undertake a similar study to learn what the teaching materials used in the United States say about the Soviet Union. Richard W. Burkhardt of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University will direct the study. A small advisory committee is now being appointed to assist Dr. Burkhardt in his work.

ACCREDITATION OF SERVICE EXPERIENCES

Thomas N. Barrows, director of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, and Cornelius P. Turner, assistant director, are on extended trips over the country to acquaint interested persons in the fields of secondary and higher education with the aims and activities of the Commission and to stimulate cooperation in the efforts to secure evaluation and accreditation of educational experiences in the armed forces.

In order to assist the individual veteran in securing consideration of his educational experiences in the military services as they relate to his educational plans, the Veterans Administration will furnish copies of the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, edited for the Council by George P. Tuttle of the University of Illinois, for the use of each secondary school and institution of higher education in the United States. Twenty-five thousand copies of a complete edition will be distributed without cost to these institutions.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL RELATIONS

Howard E. Wilson, secretary of the Council's Committee on International Education and Cultural Relations, has been appointed deputy executive secretary of the Preparatory Commission for UNESCO. Mr. Wilson expects to be in London for several months. In his absence his assignments on Council committees are being carried on temporarily by other competent individuals.

The chairman of the Council, Alexander J. Stoddard, and the chairman of the Council's Problems and Policies Committee, George D. Stoddard, are among the group of twenty-four members of the educational profession who have gone to Japan, at the request of General MacArthur, to study the reorganization of the educational system there.

SOCIAL SECURITY LEGISLATION

The Committee on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives has been holding hearings on the possible revision of the Social Security Act. President George F. Zook appeared before that committee on March 13. He told the committee that in 1941 the Council had made a survey of the executives of institutions of higher education to ascertain their views on the extension to universities and colleges of the old-age and survivors' insurance features of the Social Security Act. Five hundred and fifty replies were received. That survey revealed the fact that 74 percent of the executives of

the higher institutions were in favor of such extension. Dr. Zook stated that the opinions of executives of publicly controlled and privately controlled institutions were proportionately the same. He further stated that he believed the opinion of the executives in favor of the extension to non-profit institutions was as great at this time as in 1941, as indicated by resolutions to this effect passed at recent educational meetings.

The Council's Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, at its meeting on March 4, went on record as favoring the extension of the old-age and survivors' insurance features of the act to institutions of higher education.

A questionnaire has been sent to a sampling of institutions to procure their judgment on the possible inclusion of universities and colleges under the unemployment provision in a proposed revision of the Act.

TEACHER EDUCATION

Another volume growing out of the activities of the Commission on Teacher Education of the Council has been published in recent weeks, *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education* by Charles E. Prall. Only one additional volume in the series remains to be issued, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, which is the final report of the Commission's work. This volume will appear in June 1946.

DELAWARE SCHOOL SURVEY

The state of Delaware, through its legislature, has asked that a survey be made of the elementary and secondary schools of that state. The Council has accepted the invitation of the School Survey Commission, set up by the legislature to conduct this survey, and has appointed E. D. Grizzell, professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania, to direct the study. Mr. Grizzell has already begun his work and the survey will probably be completed by October 1, 1946.

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1946-47

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Until May 1948: Herman B. Wells, President, Indiana University; Helen C. White, Professor of English, University of Wisconsin, representing the American Association of University Women

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The Educational Record

July 1946

A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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Contributors to This Issue

The Council is pleased to present in this issue three of the excellent papers given at its annual meeting in May. The contributors are so well known they need no introduction either to RECORD readers or to the world in general. They are:

GENERAL OMAR N. BRADLEY, one of the great military leaders of World War II, and now Administrator of Veterans' Affairs.

ROBERT M. HUTCHINS, chancellor of the University of Chicago, where he has been a trail blazer in curriculum and administrative matters since 1929.

WILLIAM E. WICKENDEN, president of the Case School of Applied Science, administrator, engineer, and writer of educational and technical books and articles.

GEORGE F. ZOOK, who makes his annual report in this issue, has been president of the American Council on Education since 1934.

The Educational Record

July



1946

The President's Annual Report

MAY 3, 1946

IT HAS NOW been four years since there has been a meeting of the American Council on Education. Because of limited transportation and hotel facilities, it was not feasible for the Council—or other educational organizations—to schedule such meetings during the war. In lieu of these meetings the election of officers, the adoption of budgets, and other necessary items of business have been carried on by letter ballot with the member organizations and institutions.

Under these circumstances, it was not possible for me during the past three years to present in person an annual report of Council activities to the representatives of the member organizations and institutions. These reports have, however, been printed and sent to the officers and delegates of the member organizations and institutions each year. Also the Council has published quarterly in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD short accounts of current activities. Then, too, during the past six years we have distributed copies of the bulletin *Higher Education and National Affairs* (during the war years this bulletin was known as *Higher Education and National Defense*) to each member organization and institution. Finally, copies of the minutes of the Executive Committee have been similarly distributed. I trust that through these several channels it has been possible for you and a substantial portion of the educa-

tional public to maintain close contact with the Council's activities.

It is, however, I assure you, a distinct pleasure for me as President of the Council to report to you once more in person. As was my custom in prewar years, I shall intersperse my description of Council activities with certain personal observations. I trust that they may serve to stimulate further thought and possible action.

I. ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENTS

MEMBERSHIP

During the year the membership of the American Council on Education has increased from 829 to 895. The change in various classes of membership is as follows: constituent members, 59 to 64; associate members, 51 to 52; institutional members, 719 to 779. The increase in the Council's membership over the past ten years is shown in the following table:

	May 1936	May 1938	May 1940	May 1942	May 1944	May 1946
Constituent members..	28	30	36	47	55	64
Associate members.....	24	29	44	46	51	52
Institutional members..	323	363	414	507	637	779
Total.....	375	422	494	600	743	895

The following institutions and organizations have been admitted to membership in the Council since May 1944:

Constituent:

American Pharmaceutical Association
 Association of Governing Boards of State Universities and Allied
 Institutions
 Mathematical Association of America
 National Congress of Parents and Teachers (transferred from
 associate membership)
 National Safety Council

Associate:

Educational Film Library Association, Inc.

Institutional:

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa, Colorado
Albany State College, Albany, Georgia
Alverno Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Atlantic Union College, South Lancaster, Massachusetts
*Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, New York
Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach, Florida
Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois
Briar Cliff College, Sioux City, Iowa
†Catawba College, Salisbury, North Carolina
Central College, Conway, Arkansas
‡Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma
The Citadel, Charleston, South Carolina
Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell, South Dakota
Dillard University, New Orleans, Louisiana
Drury College, Springfield, Missouri
Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheyney, Washington
Glenville State College, Glenville, West Virginia
Hofstra College, Hempsted, Long Island, New York
Kansas City Junior College, Kansas City, Missouri
LaGrange College, LaGrange, Georgia
LeMoyne College, Memphis, Tennessee
Lewis and Clark College, Portland, Oregon
Loras College, Dubuque, Iowa
Mary Hardin-Baylor College, Belton, Texas
Maryville College, St. Louis, Missouri
Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg, Mississippi
McPherson College, McPherson, Kansas
Mount Saint Mary's College, Hooksett, New Hampshire
Mount St. Scholastica College, Atchison, Kansas
New York State Teachers College, Brockport, New York
New York State Teachers College, Plattsburg, New York
Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois
Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota
Northwestern State College, Alva, Oklahoma

*Renewal of membership held some years ago in the name of St. Stephens College.

†Renewal.

‡Subscribing membership.

Pennsylvania State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania

Seattle College, Seattle, Washington

Shaw University, Raleigh, North Carolina

Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota

Stowe Teachers College, St. Louis, Missouri

Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine, Texas

Superior State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin

Talladega College, Talladega, Alabama

United States Military Academy, West Point, New York

Utah State Agricultural College, Logan, Utah

Vermont Junior College, Montpelier, Vermont

West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, West Virginia

†Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Kentucky

Youngstown College, Youngstown, Ohio

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

‡Louisiana State Department of Education

Nebraska State Department of Public Instruction

CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Atlanta (Georgia) Board of Education

Bethlehem (Pennsylvania) City Schools

Caddo Parish School Board, Shreveport (Louisiana)

Gary (Indiana) Public Schools

Glendale (California) Unified School District

Lansing (Michigan) Public Schools

Newark (New Jersey) Board of Education

Reading (Pennsylvania) School System

Sacramento City (California) Unified School District

San Francisco (California) Unified School District

Syracuse (New York) Department of Public Instruction

PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Emma Willard School, Troy, New York

Grosse Pointe Country Day School and Detroit University School,

Grosse Pointe, Michigan

† Renewal.

‡ Subscribing membership.

GRANTS

During the year 1945-46 grants for special purposes amounting to \$825,515 have been made to the Council by educational foundations, agencies of the United States government, and other groups as follows:

AMERICAN FOUNDATION FOR PHARMACEUTICAL EDUCATION:

\$95,650 for a three-year study of pharmaceutical education.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION:

\$75,000 for support of the project relating to the recognition of training and educational courses in the armed forces in schools and colleges.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK AND THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD:

\$150,000 for a two-year study of the implications for civilian education and training of the educational experiences in the armed forces.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE:

\$1,000 for support of a study of references to the Soviet Union in teaching materials used in American schools.

\$3,000 toward the expense of the Canada-United States Committee on Education.

DELAWARE SCHOOL SURVEY COMMISSION:

\$19,230 for a survey of the elementary and secondary schools of Delaware.

FIELD FOUNDATION:

\$2,000 toward the support of the work on the Canada-United States Committee on Education.

\$10,000 for the work of the Committee on Education and Social Security.

GRANT FOUNDATION:

\$20,000 for a book on measurement and guidance, to be edited by E. F. Lindquist.

EDWARD W. HAZEN FOUNDATION:

\$1,250 for further support of the work of the Committee on Student Personnel Work.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHRISTIANS AND JEWS:

\$75,000 over a three-year period for the work of the College Study in Intergroup Relations of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

\$115,785 for two-year support of intergroup education projects in cooperating school systems, under the direction of Hilda Taba.

\$6,600 for the use of the Committee on Intercultural Relations of the National Council of Teachers of English.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF AMERICAN-SOVIET FRIENDSHIP, INC.:

\$4,000 for support of a project on the study of data on the Soviet Union contained in textbooks and other teaching materials used in American schools.

LESSING J. ROSENWALD FOUNDATION:

\$27,000 for three-year support of a national center for education on social security and related services, under the direction of Karl de Schweinitz.

GEORGE D. WIDENER:

\$10,000 for two-year support of a national center for education on social security and related services, under the direction of Karl de Schweinitz.

CIVIL AERONAUTICS ADMINISTRATION:

\$15,000 for research in evaluating and planning aeronautical curriculums and teaching materials at the college level.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE:

\$75,000 for assistance to American-sponsored schools in China and neighboring countries, through June 30, 1947.

\$120,000 for assistance to American-sponsored schools in Latin America, including support of the Inter-American Schools Service.

FINANCES

Fortunately, the Council was the beneficiary of a grant of \$300,000 from the General Education Board in 1941 for the current expenses of the central office. According to the terms of this grant not more than \$45,000 of this sum may be expended in any one year. During the year which is drawing

to a close, it is possible, as has been true during the past two years, that we may not need to draw on the full amount which is available from the grant for general support.

This favorable situation, as I pointed out last year, is due to the steady increase in income which we have been deriving from membership dues. In 1934-35, for example, the income from dues was \$21,000. Since that time, as already indicated, the total membership of the Council has increased from 270 to 895, and it seems likely that the income from membership dues will this year reach approximately \$46,000. If so, the amount of income from this source will again, as during the past two years, exceed the amount received from the General Education Board grant.

About one impression, however, which I have communicated to you several times during the past few years, I seem to have been mistaken. It has been my feeling that it would probably not be possible to support the central office of the Council out of the dues of member organizations and institutions. During the past year, however, there has been extensive discussion in the Executive Committee of this problem. At the end of the present fiscal year we shall have spent something over one-half of the General Education Board's grant and it has, therefore, been necessary to consider the support of the Council over the long future. The Executive Committee, at its meeting in February of this year, moved into the situation by deciding that after January 1, 1947, the dues for colleges, universities, and teacher education institutions would be increased to the amount charged all institutional members up to 1935, that is, \$100 per year. The dues of the junior colleges, private schools, and school systems, as well as the dues for constituent and associate members remain unchanged. The announcement of this change in dues went out from the Council office several weeks ago. Thus far, no institution has replied that it could not or would not pay the increased figure; two only have raised certain questions; many have replied enthusiastically endorsing the action; one institution has already

paid the increased figure though it was not due for eight months!

In view of this more promising situation, the Council can consider several alternatives. It can increase the size of the staff of the central office, which very much needs to be done. It can decrease the amount of money used annually from the General Education Board grant. It can take the first step toward the creation of a building fund. I hope that the Executive Committee will be able to give further consideration to these interesting possibilities in the early future.

We have also enjoyed a favorable year in receipts and expenditures of the publications revolving fund, which were estimated at \$157,000 for the year 1945-46. As is well known, it is exceedingly difficult to estimate in advance what the receipts and expenditures for publications will be. Owing to the unusual demand for some of the Council's publications, the volume of business during the current year amounted to almost twice the estimated receipts and expenditures of \$157,000, namely, \$260,017.75. This fund is an exceedingly useful means of financing publishing enterprises of considerable size. The staff has endeavored to pursue a thoroughly conservative but vigorous policy in the conduct of this division of the Council. Later in this report I shall make a further statement concerning the nature and scope of the publications issued by the Council.

In addition to the general operating budget of \$111,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1946, the Council received from time to time grants of money from educational foundations for special projects. Also, during the past year several contracts with various governmental agencies have been entered into, including \$120,000 from the Department of State for the Inter-American Schools Service and for financial aid to American schools in the other American republics, and \$75,000 for assistance to selected colleges in China. During the year the total income for special projects from all sources amounted to \$702,623. Hence, the total income for all of

the Council's activities, including the sale of publications and tests, in the course of the year will be in the neighborhood of \$970,600.

The changes in the size and personnel of the staff, together with the expense of supporting the work of a new committee on the Pacific coast, will make necessary a corresponding increase in the Council's general operating budget for 1946-47 to \$130,500. The proposed budget for the publications revolving fund is \$201,000. In my opinion, both of these budgets are on a sound and conservative basis. I wish to recommend that they be adopted.

STAFF

During the year the Council lost a major member of its central staff—Donald J. Shank, administrative associate. After a ten-year period with the Council, Mr. Shank resigned on September 30, 1945, to join the staff of the School of Industrial and Labor Relations of Cornell University. During his decade with the Council, Mr. Shank gave loyal and untiring service and made a notable contribution to its efforts.

Robert D. Quick, who served as a captain in the Army of the United States and who was associated with the editorial project of the United States Armed Forces Institute, joined the Council staff in December 1945 as manager of publications. Prior to his Army service Mr. Quick was with Houghton Mifflin Company.

The Council has again been fortunate in having the services for a period of several months of two of the interns of the National Institute of Public Affairs, namely, Karl F. Grittner and Waring C. Hopkins. On February 1, Mr. Grittner finished his internship and returned to Minnesota. At that time the Council added Mr. Hopkins to its salaried staff for a period of six months. He is giving half-time to the work of the central office and half-time to the work of the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs.

For several years J. Harold Goldthorpe served on a ten-months basis as a research associate of the Council. On June

30, 1945, Mr. Goldthorpe left the staff of the Council and is now connected with the Department of State.

When the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs was formed, the Council was extremely fortunate in securing as its director Alonzo G. Grace, commissioner of education for the state of Connecticut. Dr. Grace has drawn about him a number of individuals to carry on certain of the activities in which the Commission is engaged. They are:

M. M. Chambers, assistant director and research associate. Mr. Chambers served during the war as a major in the Army Air Forces. He was previously connected with the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education.

Henry C. Herge, formerly commanding officer of the college training program, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut. Prior to his war service Mr. Herge was supervising principal of the Bellmore, New York, public schools. He is acting as assistant director of the project and is carrying on a study of the college and university training programs.

Robert J. Matthews, formerly captain, Army Air Forces. Mr. Matthews is on leave from the College of the City of New York and is doing research on instruction given in the foreign languages by the armed forces.

John R. Miles, formerly lieutenant commander, USNR, Naval Air Test Center, Patuxent River, Maryland. Mr. Miles was formerly a research associate at the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University. He is studying the evaluation methods and procedures used by the armed services.

Dorothy Schaffter, formerly professor of political science at Vassar College and president of Connecticut College for Women, is making a study of the training programs for women in the armed services.

Frederick B. Davis, who was a member of the staff of the Cooperative Test Service of the Council before entering military service, is conducting a study of the classification of personnel in the armed services. Mr. Davis served as a major in

the Aviation Psychology Branch of the Army Air Forces during the war.

Edward C. Elliott, president emeritus of Purdue University, conducted a study of the training of civilians under the jurisdiction of the various branches of the armed services.

Upon completion of his assignment with the Commission on Implications, Dr. Elliott assumed the directorship of the Survey of Pharmaceutical Education, Practices, and Services, described later in this report.

To carry on activities incident to a grant from the Department of State for assistance to American-sponsored schools in China, Anne Lamberton joined the staff of the Council in September 1945. Miss Lamberton formerly served as registrar of the Medical School at St. John's University in Shanghai, China.

Hilda Taba (Mrs. Leon B. Wolcott), formerly a member of the staff at the University of Chicago, is directing the Council's project on Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools.

Thomas N. Barrows, formerly president of Lawrence College, is directing the Council's project which is concerned with aiding schools and colleges to establish accrediting procedures to appraise the educational achievement of service men and women. These activities include the granting of credit for various types of educational experiences gained in the armed forces. Cornelius P. Turner, formerly superintendent of schools in Leicester, Massachusetts, is assistant director of the project. Mr. Turner, as a lieutenant, USNR, was chief of the accreditation section of the United States Armed Forces Institute.

Richard W. Burkhardt, of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University, has become the director of a study of the treatment of the Soviet Union in textbooks and other teaching materials used in the United States. Mr. Burkhardt began his work on February 1 and expects to complete the study by September 1, 1946.

To direct the activities of a survey of the elementary and secondary schools of the state of Delaware, E. D. Grizzell, professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania, became associated with the Council for a temporary period. The survey was authorized by the legislature of the state of Delaware. Dr. Grizzell began his work on February 15.

In October 1946, George P. Tuttle of the University of Illinois, who had charge of the compilation and issuance of the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, found it necessary to resume his duties at the University. He was succeeded by Edward J. Smith, of the University of Illinois, who will complete the activities of this project.

One member of the staff of the Cooperative Test Service, David G. Ryans, has returned from service with the Navy and resumed his duties there. Mr. Ryans has again taken over the activities of the National Committee on Teacher Examinations, under the direction of the chairman of the committee.

E. F. Lindquist, of the State University of Iowa, has accepted the directorship of a project which is responsible for the preparation of a book on educational measurement.

Robert M. Ball, formerly on the legislative-planning staff and the training staff of the Social Security Board, has become the assistant director of the Committee on Education and Social Security. Earlier Mr. Ball was manager of one of the Social Security Board field offices.

Helen C. Hurley, who has served on the staff of the Council in various capacities during the past twenty-five years, was appointed assistant to the president by the Executive Committee at its meeting on October 6, 1945.

PUBLICATIONS

Our publication activities have expanded tremendously during the past year. We have issued a number of new titles, as

the Appendix to this report indicates. Sales have been unusually large.

An article on "Significant Education Books, 1937-1944," in the *Teachers College Record* for October 1945, listed twenty-six titles published by the Council as important professional literature. These titles were the following: *American Junior Colleges*, *American Universities and Colleges*, *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth*, *The Utilization of School Sanitary Facilities*, *Youth and the Future*, *Youth Tell Their Story*, *Postwar Youth Employment*, *Youth Work Programs*, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, *Educational Counseling of College Students*, *Occupational Orientation of College Students*, *Social Competence and College Students*, *The Student Personnel Point of View*, *The College and Teacher Education*, *Toward Community Understanding*, *Teacher Education in a Democracy at War*, *Manual of Teachers College Accounting*, *Teacher Education in Service*, *A Functional Program of Teacher Education as Developed at Syracuse University*, *Teachers for Our Times*, *Evaluation in Teacher Education*, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, *Reading in General Education*, *Youth Work Programs*, *Focus on Learning*, and *A Measure for Audio-Visual Programs in Schools*.

During the past year the Council has published three titles listed in "Sixty Educational Books of 1945," published in the *National Education Association Journal* for May 1946: *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*, *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs*, and *Helping Teachers Understand Children*.

A substantial portion of the publication activities has been concerned during the year with supplying Council publications to the armed services. Twelve thousand copies of the *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States* were distributed to the various services, and 8,000 copies to civilian institutions, within four months after publication. A third printing of this book will be available soon. There has been a continuing wide distribution of the

Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services. Within a short time, the Veterans' Administration will distribute without cost to the schools and colleges of the country a copy of a complete edition of this book, published in 1946 by the Council. When this distribution has been made, a total of 60,000 copies of this *Guide* will have been published.

With the end of hostilities, there has been an increased interest in publications of the Council issued during previous years. Two thousand copies of a reprint of the 1940 edition of *American Universities and Colleges* were distributed during 1945. Publications of the American Youth Commission have been in demand recently, and other titles on the Council's list have been active.

This brief résumé of publications is sufficient to indicate that the large volume of materials produced by the various committees and commissions of the Council has placed the Council among the major publishers and distributors of books, pamphlets, and tests in the United States. It is fortunate that some years ago we set up a publications revolving fund, which has become a very useful unit in the Council's organization.

II. FUNCTIONS OF THE COUNCIL

I cannot resist the temptation to make some observations on the basic functions of the Council. On this matter the constitution of the Council includes the following statement:

The general object of the Council, and the basis of membership therein, shall be to advance American education in any or all of its phases through comprehensive, voluntary, cooperative action on the part of educational associations, organizations, and institutions and in the fulfillment of that purpose to initiate, promote, and carry out such systematic studies, cooperative experiments, conferences, and other similar enterprises as may be required for the public welfare and approved by the Council. The Council was organized to meet national needs in time of war and will always seek to render patriotic service. It will also encourage international cooperation in educational matters.

As is the case with every written constitution there must be frequent and continuing interpretations in the light of new conditions. At the time the Council was formed, there were only a small number of educational organizations as constituent members. During the period when the representatives of the constituent members alone had the right to vote, it was clearly the intention that at meetings of the Council there would be discussions of and decisions reached with respect to major issues in American education. It was hoped that this process would aid materially in unifying and solidifying educational opinion and the policies of major educational organizations operating at the several levels of education.

There was certainly great need for an organization to serve this purpose, and the Council set out bravely to do so. But the task proved more difficult to perform than anticipated. In those days the chief educational problem was the proposed federal department of education with a secretary in the President's cabinet. This important issue was debated at annual meetings of the Council for several years without any clear decision being reached. The inability through the processes of discussion at annual meetings of the Council to arrive at decisions on major educational problems undoubtedly led the founding fathers of the Council to emphasize other aspects of the Council's program which looked to the same end.

In the meantime, the membership of the Council continued to grow until at the present time, as I have stated elsewhere, the constituent organizations belonging to the Council have increased to 64. These do not include 52 associate-member organizations which do not have the right to vote. On the other hand, as you know, by a change in the constitution in 1933 the institutional members of the Council received the right to vote. An annual meeting of the Council where the representatives of 64 organizations and 779 institutions—including both colleges and school systems—have the right to vote is certainly a very different gathering than a meeting of the Council in the early twenties when only the representatives of approximately a dozen organizations voted. If, therefore,

in those early days it proved impossible for the Council in regular or special sessions to reach decisions on major matters of educational policy, how much more difficult it is today.

Yet it seems desirable to me that it should do so. I want to discuss with you several methods of accomplishing this objective, which seem to me to be feasible. I am convinced, however, that ordinarily it is not desirable to attempt to adopt a Council policy on a major educational problem merely through informal debate at Council meetings. Every such proposal is complex and deserves the most careful thinking. In many instances representatives to the Council are not prepared to vote on such matters on short notice.

It follows, therefore, that a proposed statement of Council policy should first be considered at some length by a committee of the Council, such as the Problems and Policies Committee; that a concise statement of policy should be drawn up, much as was done by the Problems and Policies Committee two years ago on the matter of universal military training; and finally that this statement should be submitted to the representatives of the constituent and institutional members of the Council for their approval or rejection.

A further exploration of this technique has been attempted at this meeting of the Council. Yesterday afternoon and evening, the representatives of the constituent members of the Council were in session in this room. They had before them two statements bearing on two very important problems in American education, namely, the crisis with respect to teachers and the proposed department of health, education, and security. As will be brought to your attention later in this meeting, the conference of delegates took certain actions on these proposals which merit the attention of the entire Council.

It is pertinent at this point to raise the question of the usefulness of policy pronouncements made by the American Council on Education. In any such process there will nearly always be vigorous differences of opinion which may even lead to temporary alienation of those organizations which, rightly or

wrongly, may feel that their interests or point of view has not been sufficiently or properly considered.

Yet it remains true that we are deeply obligated to eliminate as much as possible of the confusion in American education to which President Hutchins referred several years ago. Well-thought-out statements of educational policy contribute powerfully to that end in a great variety of ways. Over the years they are the documents which influence the thinking—and ultimately the practices—of teachers and educational executives.

One of the most important uses of these policy statements is concerned with the relations of organized education to government at the several levels of operation. Certainly many educational matters are being considered from time to time by various branches of the federal government. It is important for the officers of the Council to be able to present to congressional committees statements of policy bearing on bills under consideration which have the approbation of the representatives of the major educational organizations and institutions of the country. I assure you that such statements are welcomed and that they receive careful consideration.

In this process of compiling and consolidating opinion, the Council has from time to time distributed questionnaires to its member organizations and institutions requesting reactions on specific questions. Frequently, the representatives of organizations and institutions have replied that they felt unable to reply to such questionnaires without further consultation with their associates or superiors. The staff of the Council welcomes these discussions as further evidence of the importance of the respective problems, but it cannot be assumed that the representatives to the Council will necessarily seek this advice because such a procedure would result in delays which would almost certainly defeat the purpose of the questionnaire. In order to remove any uncertainty in the minds of Council delegates, the Executive Committee yesterday passed the following motion:

In voting at meetings of the Council, or on proposals which are submitted by letter from time to time, it is assumed that the representatives of constituent and institutional members of the Council are expressing their individual opinions and that such votes do not in any way commit or bind the organization or institution which they represent.

Hereafter this statement will be announced at meetings of the Council and prominently displayed on every request for reactions from representatives to the Council on problems of educational policy.

Thus, it seems to me that we shall gradually work out one or more methods of securing the reactions of representatives to the Council on important educational problems which may never reach the rather formal procedures used by the United States Chamber of Commerce but which, nevertheless, will serve one of the most important purposes envisioned by the founders of the Council twenty-eight years ago.

RESEARCH AND STUDIES

A second function of the Council is that of research and study. In these days educational research and study, in contrast to all earlier periods, have assumed an exceedingly important place in the formulation of educational policy. There is, indeed, a natural distrust of pronouncements on educational policy unless it can be shown that they are based on research and experience. Hence, the results of research in the field of education have a validity in the minds of most people which engenders confidence in pronouncements which are based thereon.

The Council has engaged in a long series of educational researches and studies, prominent among which were those conducted by the American Youth Commission, the Commission on Teacher Education, and the Motion Picture Project. These activities were made possible by generous grants from a great variety of sources, including especially the educational foundations. In every instance a great body of relevant facts were marshalled, and a number of educational experiments were set up on the basis of which a committee or commission, composed

of representative leaders in American education, reached conclusions which have become important pronouncements in the field of educational policy.

This procedure has always involved the cooperation of a number of the Council's member organizations and institutions, sometimes by the appointment of individuals prominently identified with them to Council committees or commissions and, frequently, through local studies in selected colleges or school systems, such as the two projects now under way in the field of intergroup relations.

In this connection, it should be understood that, although the conclusions reached by Council committees or commissions may be exceedingly important, they may not properly be spoken of as pronouncements of the Council itself unless some such procedure is followed as I have already suggested.

I do not wish in any way to minimize the importance of the conclusions which are reached by Council committees and commissions. They may be of very great importance because the group responsible for them is usually both representative and able. Moreover, as everyone knows, the quality of the conclusions is their own best authority. Publications in the realm of social policy, including the field of education, which are based on facts and are cogently and logically presented will in this day and age of widespread communication receive just about that amount of attention and secure just about that degree of results which they merit. Hence, the very great importance to American education of the numerous studies which are being undertaken by Council committees and commissions.

SERVICES

I do not suppose that the organizers of the Council anticipated, except in a very general way, the importance of services to member organizations and institutions. It was expected from the very beginning that the interests of colleges and schools would be represented to the various federal agencies, particularly the Army and the Navy. It could not have been foreseen, however, that these representations to the armed

services would have to be so frequent and so varied as proved to be the case in World War II. Nor could it be anticipated that there would be almost innumerable alphabetical agencies—all the way from the NYA through the CCC, the WPA, the FHA, Selective Service, Surplus War Property Administration, Social Security, the Cultural Relations Division of the State Department, the Veterans' Administration, down to the OPA, and many others which will readily come to your minds—with which the staff and various committees of the Council would alternately have to wrestle and cooperate on one subject after the other in order to represent the interests of education. Truly life in Washington has been interesting indeed during the past seven years, and we would have been derelict had we not attempted to perform these services and to report our doings frequently to you through letters, bulletins, and press releases.

There are, however, other types of services which the Council has rendered to its members from time to time. For several years it conducted the Financial Advisory Service, which, I am convinced, was of considerable value to the financial officers of the institutions of higher education. We have produced and distributed a variety of tests over the past twenty years. We have carried on a number of surveys of educational institutions and school systems. We have produced and distributed a number of filmstrips and filmslides, and we have issued and distributed our own publications, including the handbook, *American Universities and Colleges*, as well as *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, and *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*.

I need not tell you that the performance of these services by the Council staff takes time and properly raises the question as to whether—or at least to what extent—the Council should attempt to carry them on in view of other heavy and important demands. I assure you that these questions have been raised as each type of service has been under consideration.

There are a variety of reasons why such services should be

performed by the Council. Sometimes it is the comprehensive character of the Council which makes it the best sponsor for such publications as the handbook and the two guides which I mentioned a few moments ago. In the case of other publications resulting from the studies of the Council's commissions and committees, we found that it was impossible to depend on commercial publishers to publish and distribute all of our reports and manuscripts in the way we wished. Hence, we were compelled to set up a fairly elaborate system of editing, publishing, and distributing Council documents. In the field of testing, it became clear that the production of tests inevitably follows research, and that there could be no effective system of producing tests unless it was accompanied by an effective system of making them available—hence our extensive service in the field of testing.

Finally, it is to be remembered that the Council has undertaken these services only because there has been an active demand for them by member organizations and institutions. These member organizations and institutions are deeply interested in the pronouncements on major educational problems which emanate from the Council from time to time, but they live in a very practical world where representations to federal agencies, service publications, advice on financial problems, educational surveys, and tests are directly and financially valuable to them. From the point of view of the Council's members, therefore, the greater the variety and effectiveness of these services, the more valuable their membership in the Council appears to them to be. As I stated earlier, during the past ten years the Council has had a rather remarkable increase in both organizational and institutional members. The reactions which I have received on innumerable occasions have convinced me that this situation is due in no small part to the Council's program of services.

III. THE PROBLEMS AND POLICIES COMMITTEE

It is the function of the Problems and Policies Committee to consider the merging and recurring problems of first-rate

importance in American education. In some instances the committee itself makes pronouncements on these matters. In others it recommends the establishment of special facilities to study, make recommendations on, and take such actions as are appropriate and possible.

During the past two years the committee has been occupied to a considerable extent with the continuing question of whether universal military training is to be established in this country. The committee has been deeply impressed with the need for considering this problem as a part of a total plan for national defense, including new scientific developments and the plans of the United Nations for the preservation of peace. Hence, at its meeting in October 1945 the following statement was adopted:

We are concerned that education shall contribute its full part to the nation's future security. The experience of the war now closing and of the peace now in the making has convinced us that military strength constantly maintained is essential both to the preservation of peace and to the exercise of international influence consistent with our national ideals and obligations, but we are equally convinced that military strength alone cannot guarantee these ends.

High skill in understanding the problems and aspirations of other peoples, in composing differences of interest and policy, and in interpreting national and international issues to the people at large is equally necessary with military might if armed conflicts are to be avoided. Special capacity in these matters, as in military matters, is a concern for experts, yet responsibility to contribute in service and sacrifice in both realms is universal.

Scientific pre-eminence, technological skill, industrial and agricultural capacity, medical preparedness, and a dominant position in research are equally necessary with military potential both to avoid war and to meet its issues successfully.

Preparedness to cope with matters of government, economic administration, relief, and reconstruction within areas of military operation and occupation and to deal constructively with the issues of peace-making are equally essential to preserve security when restored by armed power.

We would, therefore, deem it unwise to deal piecemeal with policies

and measures concerned with the nation's defense against war. In particular, we would consider it inexpedient to commit the nation to a plan of universal military training or service in advance of a broad consideration of the entire problem of the nation's security. Equally, we would deem it unwise for Congress to determine this issue on the judgment of the armed forces alone. While we have profound respect for their expert knowledge and judgment on the strategic and technical problems of defense and war, we believe that other than military issues are deeply involved. Without the broadest possible weighing of these issues and the development of an equally comprehensive security program for the nation, we should have grave doubts of the effective use of the forces of education or of their ability to fulfill their obligations to the nation in an adequate degree, both in peace and war.

We therefore strongly urge that the President appoint a commission representing the highest abilities and widest interests of the nation to study the problems of national security and to report to the Congress and that no permanent measure looking toward military training or service be considered by Congress until this commission has submitted its recommendations.

This pronouncement formed a part of the statement which was submitted to the Committee on Military Affairs of the House of Representatives on November 20. Earlier a similar request for the appointment of a national commission to consider all aspects of national defense together was presented to President Truman. Many other organizations have joined the Council in similar requests, but up to the present time Congress has not seen fit to give this proposal serious consideration.

As was stated in my report last year, it now seems clear that the emergency measures taken during the war by the federal government may in many instances have long-time implications. Several of these will be considered in other places in this report. Others, to which the Problems and Policies Committee has given special consideration, will be discussed in this section of the report.

In this connection it is desirable that as early as possible there should be a comprehensive analysis and evaluation of

the relations of the higher institutions to the federal government during World War II. Such a statement was never written following World War I, largely because of the difficulty in assembling data. There is no dearth of data on this subject growing out of World War II; this time the relationships were much more extensive. Since we were actively engaged in the struggle for a longer period than was the case in World War I, it seems that the story might have more lasting implications for American higher education and, therefore, have much more value than a similar story of World War I. At any rate, the subject appealed to the Problems and Policies Committee as very important, and at its meeting in October 1945 it authorized the staff to seek funds with which to undertake such a study. I hope that we may be able to undertake this important enterprise in the early future while the details of education's contribution to the war effort are still fresh in our minds.

Another subject growing out of our experience in the war was the proposal for a national science foundation. This proposal grew out of the report of a committee headed by Dr. Vannevar Bush, director of the Office of Scientific Research and Development, appointed at the instigation of President Roosevelt in November 1944. The report was entitled *Science, The Endless Frontier*. The report concludes that basic research should be initiated in American colleges and universities and that in order to do this federal funds must be provided for the support of such a program. The Bush report recommends the establishment of an independent governmental agency to be known as the "National Research Foundation." The foundation would be controlled by a nine-man board, not otherwise connected with the government, who would serve without compensation. The board's policies would be administered by a director appointed by the members. Within the foundation would be five divisions: (1) medical research; (2) natural sciences; (3) national defense; (4) scientific personnel and education; (5) publications and scientific collaboration.

Under the proposed division of scientific personnel and education a system of 6,000 national scholarships and fellowships was recommended to encourage the development of scientific talent. The scholars would be chosen after suitable examination by state committees of selection and would be permitted to attend institutions of their own choice within the limits of advice offered by the state board. Fellows would be chosen by a national committee of selection. All recipients would be required to enroll in a "National Science Reserve" whereby the government would call them into service—not necessarily of a military nature—in the event of a national emergency.

After the release of the Bush report three identical bills were introduced into Congress, following its recommendations, and referred to the appropriate committees for study and action.

A second report on the subject was made by the Subcommittee on War Mobilization of the Senate Military Affairs Committee, under the chairmanship of Senator Kilgore of West Virginia. A number of the findings in this report were common to those of the Bush report.

At its meeting in October 1945 the Problems and Policies Committee had the benefit of discussion of this subject by representatives of the National Research Council, the Social Science Research Council, and the American Council of Learned Societies. After extended consideration, the committee adopted a report which contained recommendations:

1. Favoring the general principles of the several bills looking toward the establishment of a national research foundation in the natural sciences.
2. An undergraduate scholarship program supported by the federal government which should be available to students in any area of knowledge who were enrolled in approved universities and colleges.
3. A fellowship program for graduate students in the natural sciences, to be extended to other areas of knowledge as need was demonstrated.

Unfortunately there has been considerable disagreement in the Congress, particularly on the manner in which such a national science foundation should be administered. These dif-

ferences of opinion have resulted in several bills with similar objectives, but different methods of administration. Whether it will be possible to reconcile these differences in time for the present Congress to act on this important proposal remains to be seen.

The most distressing heritage of the war from an educational point of view is the devastation of schools and universities in the countries occupied by the enemy during the war. At its meeting in February 1946 the committee listened to this stirring story as told by several representatives of UNRRA. Clearly something needed to be done.

But it was equally clear that if funds were to be secured in this country for educational rehabilitation abroad it would be necessary to secure them from voluntary sources. In the minds of the members of the committee there was no doubt about our moral obligation to relieve this distress as far as possible. Hence, the committee voted that the Council should set up a committee to consider the problem of educational rehabilitation in the enemy-occupied countries and to formulate a program of action for such rehabilitation in which it was hoped that the several educational organizations may participate extensively. The steps which the staff of the Council has taken toward this end are described elsewhere in this report.

Related to this problem is the reorganization of education along democratic lines in Germany, Italy, and Japan. Fortunately in the case of Japan, the War and State Departments took prompt steps in the naming of an educational mission to Japan. The mission, composed of a number of outstanding leaders of American education, including Dr. George D. Stoddard, chairman of the Problems and Policies Committee, and Dr. A. J. Stoddard, chairman of the Council, has just returned to this country after submitting to General MacArthur a very challenging report on the revision of the educational system of Japan, including recommendations as to the revision of textbooks, the democratizing of the educational organization, and the simplification of the Japanese alphabet.

In Germany the situation has been very much more difficult, partly because the country has been divided into four zones of occupation, governed by the military forces of Russia, Great Britain, France, and the United States. Furthermore, to date the military authorities in the American zone have given quite inadequate attention to the educational situation. After considerable discussion, the Problems and Policies Committee recommended the appointment of a special Council committee to study the situation and to recommend a more adequate program of education in Germany. So far no steps have been taken in this direction, in part because it may prove wiser to urge the appointment of an educational mission, similar to the one sent to Japan, to study the situation in Germany.

The committee has continued to give attention to the need for establishing a national commission, composed of outstanding leaders of civic life, to consider all appropriate steps for the promotion of public education. This proposal is being jointly considered with the Educational Policies Commission. I am glad to say that the two groups have recently arranged to secure the services of Dr. Julius E. Warren, formerly state commissioner of education in Massachusetts, who will develop further the proposal for such a commission and make an initial canvass of individuals who might be induced to accept membership on the proposed commission. The outlook for such a commission seems promising at this time. It could be of tremendous benefit to public education and hence to American life as a whole.

The committee has during the course of the year been concerned with several other matters of consequence, namely, problems in international education, the development of emerging fields of education such as social security and housing, the Council's program of teacher education through the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, the establishment of a Council committee to consider the special problems of the Pacific coast, and the proposed United States Department of Health, Education, and Security. These matters will be covered elsewhere in this report.

As I review the subjects which are considered from year to year by this important committee of the Council, I am constantly amazed at not only the degree to which the committee is able to identify what seem to me to be the important problems in American education but also the wisdom of the recommendations of the committee looking toward their solution. Certainly the Council owes much of the success of its program to the wisdom of this committee.

IV. NEW COMMISSIONS AND COMMITTEES

ACCREDITATION OF SERVICE EXPERIENCES

Since the beginning of the war, the American Council on Education has taken an active part in the problems of accreditation of service experiences. In previous reports I have referred to the various activities of the Council in this field, such as the development of counseling service for men and women in the armed services in cooperation with the United States Armed Forces Institute; the publication of several pamphlets on educational credit for military experience on both the college and secondary school level, some in cooperation with the National Association of Secondary School Principals; the allocation of two of the bulletins on *Higher Education and National Affairs* to statements on this subject; and the publication of the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, edited by George P. Tuttle, and *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools*, edited by Carter V. Good.

Last fall the Joint Army-Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation recommended the establishment of a continuing civilian agency to act as a central clearinghouse, coordinating all activities concerned with this problem. The Council received a grant of \$75,000 from the Carnegie Corporation for the establishment of such a program. A commission was set up, and a staff has been at work since December 1945, Paul E. Elicker, executive secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, chairman. In addition, con-

sultants representing the four armed services, the Veterans' Administration, and the Apprentice-Training Service assist in coordinating their activities with the work of the commission.

The director of this project, Thomas N. Barrows, former president of Lawrence College, has been active in this work since the winter of 1942. During the spring of 1943 he made three extensive trips, participating in numerous regional college conferences called by the Council to discuss this subject. The associate director of this project, Cornelius P. Turner, was during the war director of the Accreditation Section at the United States Armed Forces Institute. Before the war he had experience in secondary school administration.

One of the major undertakings of this Commission is the maintenance of a continuing, up-to-date, compilation of accreditation policies and practices among secondary schools and colleges with respect particularly to the basis on which experience and special-training courses in the armed services may be evaluated in terms of school and college credit. In order to gain such information at first hand the Commission has sponsored a large number of conferences of state departments of education and representative leaders in secondary education, and a series of state and regional college conferences. These meetings have been led by members of the staff. Within a short time these conferences will be virtually completed; Mr. Barrows and Mr. Turner will have conducted a total of forty-seven such secondary school meetings with representatives from forty-five states, and twenty college conferences. In addition, members of the staff have participated in seven other educational meetings, making a total of seventy-four. On the basis of these discussions, a comprehensive compilation of present accreditation policies will be published.

On the recommendation of the Commission, the Veterans' Administration has agreed to purchase 25,000 copies of a new and complete edition of the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services* for free distribution to high schools and colleges in the United States. It is

anticipated that this distribution will take place early this summer. Thereafter, the problem of interpreting and evaluating service experience will be greatly facilitated.

The staff reports that virtually all states have provided for the use of the Tests of General Educational Development as a basis for awarding high school diplomas or certificates of equivalency. While the policies and practices are not identical in all regions or within some states, the increasing use of these tests is proving of great benefit to veterans as a basis for admission to higher institutions and in employment opportunities.

Two additional equivalent forms of the General Educational Development Tests, High School Level, are now being constructed. The first of these new forms will be ready for use this summer and will be made available for controlled use by civilian educational institutions for testing veterans.

Colleges are reporting that veterans as a group are doing better academic work than nonveterans, and that the veterans are cooperating in every respect. Far from forcing a lowering of academic standards, the presence of veterans is, in fact, improving them. Although most colleges have modified the quantitative requirements for admission of veterans, there has been no need to lower qualitative standards either for admission or for their academic programs.

The Veterans' Testing Service of the American Council on Education has been closely coordinated with the Commission on Accreditation in matters of policy and function.

While the work of this Commission is addressed to the matter of evaluating experiences in the armed services in terms of school and college credit, it is easy to see that any measures which schools or institutions of higher education apply to veterans will commend themselves immediately to the same institutions as policies which they may also follow with respect to nonveterans. Already the action taken by schools and colleges, largely stimulated by this commission, has extended into all parts of the country and into all types of institutions. It seems fair to conclude, therefore, that time-

serving as necessary to school and college credit is due for considerable modification and that what a student knows or can do will become more and more recognized as the basis for graduation.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE ARMED SERVICES EDUCATIONAL
PROGRAMS FOR CIVILIAN EDUCATION

A little more than a year ago the Council presented simultaneously to the Carnegie Foundation and the General Education Board a proposal for a study of the implications of the armed services educational programs for civilian education. The purpose of the study, as stated in the proposal, was to find effective means of evaluating military experience for its potential significance to civilian institutions, and to facilitate the understanding and adoption of those features of the military educational programs which will improve education and training in civilian life.

The proposal for the study contained a tentative outline of topics which might be included. Among them were:

- Classification, assignment, and selection
- Motivation
- Instructional materials and methods
- Special training
- Therapy and mental hygiene
- Variable factors affecting adjustment
- Nonmilitary educational activities
- Special research techniques

The two foundations—Carnegie and the General Education Board—jointly provided \$150,000 for this study. Dr. Alonzo G. Grace, commissioner of education for Connecticut, agreed to assume the directorship. As the study has progressed the topics originally suggested in the outline have been modified and extended in a variety of directions. The initial purposes remain unchanged, but unforeseen conditions have of necessity required a modification of some of the original plans.

Few people were able to predict VJ Day and the termina-

tion of the fighting-war. The sudden and unpredicted end of the war affected practically every phase of the reconversion program contemplated for the postwar period. The study of the implications of the armed services educational programs for civil education, though planned during the midst of the war as a two-year project, necessarily had to be replanned. It was decided to complete the project so far as possible during a one-year period largely because of the rapid demobilization program.

The commission staff, however, is of the opinion that this change in time schedule will make possible a more effective study than had the major document been completed during the pressure of the war period. It has been possible for staff members not only to observe Army and Navy educational programs during the period of the war, but also during the period of demobilization, when many educational programs approximated a peacetime character.

It becomes increasingly obvious to the staff that the study will be of interest and value to educators. On the other hand, an equally good volume might have been written on the contributions of American education to the armed services educational programs. The character and the fundamental procedures were contributions of educators who were either in uniform or recruited in civilian capacities as consultants to the various services.

It has been necessary to limit this study specifically to the armed services educational programs. Many have drawn conclusions concerning the effectiveness of these programs, whereas the impact of war or the effect of a war period upon schools and colleges was perhaps more influential in inciting changes in procedure, practice, or programs. For example, the health, physical fitness, and recreation program of the armed services offers little except in the way of a "hardening process" for physical education classes in our schools and colleges. On the other hand, the influence for the expansion of this program is the result of Selective Service data relating to the physical and mental condition of youth.

In another area, the armed services have demonstrated that illiterates who are not slow learners can attain a fourth-grade reading ability in from twelve to twenty weeks. The Navy studied over 7,000 illiterates, and in the Army installations approximately 87 percent of the illiterates inducted were made fit for basic training in various units.

The language programs appear to offer the most extensive field for research, and intensive studies are in progress in this area. No one specific method is a panacea in itself. Considerable experimentation is required in this field as well as much interdepartmental planning when institutions consider the redirection of their language teaching.

This study has uncovered an appalling amount of data—an intensive study of any one area would require most of the funds allocated to this project. One of the most fruitful chapters probably will be research. The staff has tried to identify all fruitful areas and has made a critical evaluation of the armed services educational programs.

It may be said at this point that the educational programs of the armed services will not revolutionize civilian education. There is evidence that a much closer relationship should prevail among the armed services, government, industrial organizations, and the educational system in order that each may be aware of the problems of the other. This is particularly true in the vocational-technical area. The major research will be completed by July 1, and the completed report will be sent to the press about October 1946.

SURVEY OF PHARMACEUTICAL EDUCATION, PRACTICES, AND SERVICES

A number of times in recent years the Council has been approached on the question of making a survey of pharmaceutical education in the United States. It was not, however, until this year that plans for such a survey were completed. Upon the request of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, the Council presented to the American Foundation for Pharmaceutical Education the outline of a compre-

hensive survey of pharmaceutical education, practices, and services, with a request for a grant to underwrite the project. The American Foundation for Pharmaceutical Education very generously made a grant of \$95,650 for the survey, extending over a period of approximately three years.

In the survey consideration will be given to such matters as the activities engaged in by pharmacists, the general knowledge that a pharmacist should have regarding pharmaceutical products, new fields of pharmaceutical service with their implications for training and for employment, the role of pharmacy in medical care, the evaluation by pharmacy graduates of their previous training in relation to the activities in which they engage, the supply and demand of trained personnel in pharmacy, the relationship of pharmaceutical education to business and industry, and provisions for the guidance of students in colleges of pharmacy.

A committee to be in general charge of the survey, consisting of nationally known representatives of pharmaceutical education and various pharmaceutical interests, along with nationally known representatives of education outside the pharmaceutical field, has been appointed, W. W. Charters, chairman. Dr. Edward C. Elliott, president emeritus of Purdue University, has accepted the directorship of the survey.

The officers of the Council have been particularly impressed with the interest on the part of a large business and service organization in making an objective appraisal of its educational program in relation to its own services. The close cooperation between the educational and the business aspects of pharmacy in undertaking this survey represents a pattern which may well be followed by other professional services.

STUDY OF THE TREATMENT OF THE SOVIET UNION IN AMERICAN TEXTBOOKS

The Council has devoted substantial time and funds to various studies of teaching materials used in American schools to see what they say and do not say with respect to other countries. The most noteworthy of these studies was the

survey of *Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials*, published in 1944. Since that time other studies dealing with the Orient, Canada, and with intergroup relations in the United States have been completed or are under way.

It would seem obvious that the nation of the world about which Americans most need information and understanding is the Soviet Union. In attempting to build an informational background for students to enable them to think intelligently about the Soviet Union, it would be germane to inquire whether our teaching materials were well suited for that purpose. If, as with Latin America and the Far East, it is found that the texts are not adequate, some recommendations as to their improvement would be in order.

Accordingly, with financial assistance from several sources, the Council has set up a committee, Elmer Ellis, chairman, which will be in general charge of a study of the treatment of the Soviet Union in the history and geography texts most commonly used in American schools. The members of the committee were carefully chosen from the fields of social studies, international affairs, and Russian studies. The examination of the materials will be undertaken under the direction of Richard W. Burkhardt at Syracuse University. To assist in the evaluation of the findings, a consultative committee of nineteen or twenty persons will also participate in the survey. This committee will be composed of representatives from the publishing field, the field of general education and curriculum, from the social studies, and from the field of Russian affairs.

The procedure followed in the study will be to assay the materials on three questions:

1. What proportion of social studies material is actually devoted to a study of the Soviet Union?
2. How accurate and adequate are the references found?
3. How might the treatment be improved?

The problem of the place of the Soviet Union in the curriculum of the American school is a complex one. This survey will inevitably be concerned with that problem. A major diffi-

culty is that the differences between the political, social, and economic organization of the Soviet Union and the United States is so marked. Many persons are inclined to be passionately opposed or attracted to the Soviet Union and equally passionately concerned about the discussion of the Soviet Union in the American schools. The persons selected to serve on this project have reputations for objectivity and non-partisanship in this respect to the Soviet Union. The attitude of the whole endeavor is to contribute to the development of the best possible materials of instruction for future American citizens. The major premise of the study is that a frank and accurate portrayal of the Soviet Union is essential in the education of intelligent American citizens who must live in this world in which the United States and the Soviet Union are neighbors.

AMERICAN SCHOOLS IN CHINA

At the request of the Department of State the Council entered into an agreement with the Department on June 29, 1945, to administer a grant-in-aid of \$75,000 to be used in purchasing educational materials for certain schools and institutions of learning in China sponsored by United States citizens or organizations, or dependent for a part or all of their support upon United States citizens or organizations. The contract provides that not more than 10 percent of the grant is to be used for administrative purposes and not more than 15 percent to defray storage and transportation costs in delivering the materials purchased.

A survey of the United States-sponsored schools in China has been made by Roy Tasco Davis, director of the Inter-American Schools Service, and Anne Lamberton, formerly registrar of the Medical School of St. John's University, Shanghai. The results of this survey have been reported to the Department of State, and it is expected that the allocation of funds to approximately twenty educational institutions in China will be made at an early date.

Through this interesting enterprise the United States has

once more given evidence of its desire to assist on a modest scale in the educational rehabilitation and development of a great ally in World War II. Thus we have deepened a friendship which ought to be a powerful influence toward enduring world peace and good will.

THE PACIFIC COAST COMMITTEE

At the beginning of the calendar year the Council received a proposal from a group of individuals connected with schools and institutions of higher education on the Pacific coast. This proposal advocated setting up a Pacific coast office of the American Council on Education to consider ways and means of acquainting schools and colleges on the Pacific coast with various activities of the Council, the relationships between and among organizations, institutions, and schools on the Pacific coast, and other educational problems related to that area. The proposal was discussed by the Problems and Policies Committee and the Executive Committee of the Council from the viewpoint of (1) a branch office of the Council on the west coast and (2) a regional committee somewhat similar in character to the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. After extensive consideration of the matter, the Executive Committee, at its meeting on February 16, 1946, passed a motion authorizing "the setting up of a representative committee of individuals on the west coast to carry on studies of educational problems in the region, and to consider all problems of relationships between and among organizations, institutions, and schools on the Pacific coast."

Subsequently a Pacific Coast Committee of the Council was appointed by the Executive Committee at its meeting on May 2, 1946, with Alvin C. Eurich, academic vice president of Stanford University, as its chairman. At the same meeting the Executive Committee agreed that the sum of \$5,000 should be allocated to the work of the Pacific Coast Committee from the general operating budget for 1946-47. Such allocation is provided for in the budget to be presented to the annual meeting.

The chairman of the committee, Dr. Eurich, will bring the group together for organization and planning at the earliest possible time. I hope very much that this committee will facilitate closer ties between those in the field of education on the west coast and their colleagues across the miles, as well as bringing together, for a consideration of regional problems, the schools and institutions of higher education which border on the Pacific.

THE DELAWARE SURVEY

The Council has under way a survey of the public elementary and secondary schools of the state of Delaware. The invitation to make this survey was extended to the Council by the State School Survey Commission which the Governor had appointed upon authorization of the legislature.

The survey is comprehensive in scope, including educational needs and demands within the state, administration and finance, school plants and facilities, curriculums and programs of studies.

The Council was most fortunate in securing the services of Dr. E. D. Grizzell, professor of education at the University of Pennsylvania, as director of the survey. Dr. Grizzell is assisted by a staff of specialists, each of whom is studying a particular aspect of the educational program. The staff members will collaborate in preparing a final report which will go to the commission. The commission will incorporate verbatim the report of the survey staff in its report to the Governor and the legislature of the state.

It is anticipated that the survey will be completed in time for the commission to make its report to the fall session of the Delaware legislature.

V. CONTINUING COMMISSIONS AND COMMITTEES

RELATIONSHIPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION TO THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

My report of one year ago included summaries of Council activities, both in relation to the prosecution of the war and

those looking to the essential adjustments in the postwar period, which then seemed many months yet ahead. Within these short twelve months, plans then in process of formulation have been translated into legislation, regulations, and procedures; classrooms—vacant then—are now overflowing, and institutions are developing effective means for selection and referral of students.

It is well that colleges and universities began early to prepare for the postwar period. Otherwise, a serious situation could have been a national catastrophe. The relationships of higher education with agencies of the federal government have grown closer as the nation girded itself to meet the challenge of postwar years. But it should not be inferred that this challenge has been met in full. Some of the problems of a year ago have not been solved; new ones have developed. In some relationships complete cooperation has been established and maintained; in others, it has been half-hearted or even negative. It is as much the purpose of this report to record failures as to indicate successes.

Of the legislation enacted by the Seventy-eighth Congress, the four laws which looked specifically to the postwar period and which had important potentialities for education were:

Public Law 346, providing education and training for veterans of World War II.

Public Law 16, providing vocational rehabilitation for veterans with a service-connected disability.

Public Law 113, providing rehabilitation to individuals injured in war service or otherwise.

Public Law 697 which established policies for the disposition of surplus property.

Other important bills were introduced in the Seventy-ninth Congress which have far-reaching influence upon education. These include provisions for (1) a national science foundation including scholarships and fellowships; (2) veteran-student housing; (3) ROTC; (4) compulsory military training; (5) federal aid to education; and (6) liberalization of Public Laws 346 and 16.

In all of the Council's activities in relation to both legislation and the procedures of governmental agencies, it has had the invaluable assistance of its Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government. The following persons have served as chairmen of this committee: Harry Woodburn Chase, chancellor of New York University; Isaiah Bowman, president, Johns Hopkins University; Edmund E. Day, president, Cornell University; O. C. Carmichael, then president of Vanderbilt University, now president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching; and Chancellor Chase, who is now serving his second period. Francis J. Brown of the Council staff has been the continuing secretary of the Committee.

Most, if not all of the activities of the Council which are briefly described in the rest of this section of my report have had the careful and constant consideration of this committee.

Trained Personnel

A year ago I discussed the rapidly expanding gap in the training of young people for the fields essential to our national health and interest. Immediately after VJ Day specific recommendations were made to the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion and to Selective Service urging (1) deferment of students on a quota basis for essential scientific fields and (2) postponement of induction of high school and college students until the end of the semester in which they became eighteen years of age. Selective Service accepted the recommendation regarding postponement—in fact, exceeded it for high school students—but no change was made in deferment policies. Although the matter is still under discussion with government agencies, it does not appear that any deferment of students will be permitted. Almost nine months after final victory the concession made under the duress of war is still insisted upon; "Every able-bodied male is destined for the armed forces and responsibility for their training rests with the Army and Navy."

During war this policy was justified by Selective Service on

the grounds of the priority of manpower needs of the armed forces. Now the justification is on the basis of not excluding veterans from college. A study made in November by the Council indicated that the number of eighteen-year-olds who would be deferred would not be in excess of 25,000 each semester.

If college students for whom induction has been postponed are inducted at the end of the current semester, it will still further extend the gap in educational training, especially in the graduate scientific fields for which the training period is too long to be attractive to veterans. There is no apparent justification for continuing the shortsighted policy of the war into the postwar period, and every effort has been and will be made by the Council to secure modification. In all of its activities in this field, the Council has had the closest cooperation of the National Research Council and other professional organizations.

Compulsory Military Training

Perhaps no issue has been of such deep concern to educators as that of compulsory military training. In February 1945 the Council submitted a questionnaire on this question to the presidents of all institutions of higher education. A total of 1,196 replies were received, 71 percent of the number of questionnaires distributed. In reply to the question "Should the decision regarding the establishment of a program of universal military (Army and Navy) training for the United States as a peacetime policy be made *now* or *after the establishment of the peace*?" In answering, 77.1 percent said "after the establishment of the peace," 18.5 percent said "now," and the balance (4.3 percent) were "uncertain." The second question was: "Do you favor the creation by the Congress of a national commission representative of many interests—Army and Navy, education, business, labor, agriculture, and religion—to study all aspects of postwar national defense, including universal military training, and to make recommendations to the Congress?" Four out of five college presidents believed

that such a commission should be appointed; one in ten did not favor the appointment of a commission; the remainder were uncertain. The third question was: "Irrespective of your judgment expressed in reply to Question 1, if the decision concerning universal military training is to be made now, do you favor the establishment as a peacetime policy of some form of universal military training for physically qualified men?" Here the replies were more divided—47 percent were opposed to peacetime military training; 38.3 percent were in favor; and the balance were either uncertain or did not answer.

The results of this study were presented to the House Committee on Military Affairs at its hearings on the legislation. At the same time the Council urged that the committee favorably report out a bill urging the President and the State Department to make every possible effort to have the United Nations outlaw universal military training. It is now evident that this Congress will take no action on the question of military training prior to its reconvening after election. But educators must not infer that the issue is dead. It will be revived again early next year. Selective Service has been extended only long enough to give the Congress, after it reconvenes, time to act again on the question of universal military training.

The Council has consistently taken the position that the President should appoint a national commission to study every aspect of our total defense and that the decision regarding compulsory military training should be based upon the report of such a committee. The need for such a study is greater now than ever before if sane judgment, rather than emotionalism and trumped-up fears, is to determine our action over the long future.

Surplus Property

It is impossible to do more than make a general estimate of the amount of surplus property which would be of value to schools and colleges that has been or will be disposed of.

Estimates run as high as a billion dollars; it may be more, but it is probably not much less. After months of delay—delays caused by referrals among government agencies—Regulation 14 of the Surplus War Property Board (now the War Assets Administration) was finally issued. This regulation confirmed the letter of March 1944 authorizing the United States Office of Education as the agency to notify institutions of availability of surplus, and to coordinate disposals on a national basis. It also urged the states to set up surplus property boards and provided for a discount to institutions of health and education of 40 percent from wholesale price. While a number of educational institutions have been able to avail themselves of surplus property under this regulation, it has been clearly demonstrated that the 40 percent discount is not enough to make it possible for many of the institutions to secure surplus property. It is the old story, "to him that hath shall be given."

Three other administrative factors have made disposal under this regulation of comparatively little value. Surplus property has not been stock-piled for education. In many instances institutions that have made requisitions on the basis of notice of availability have been notified, weeks later, that priority claimants had already purchased such materials. Another factor has been the short time given to educational institutions in which to make requisitions. The final factor is that the materials must be purchased in such large quantities that in many instances smaller institutions cannot avail themselves of the opportunity. These difficulties have been frequently discussed with the surplus property disposal agencies in Washington.

On April 1 and 2, representatives of twenty-one educational organizations held a two-day conference following which representation was made directly to the War Assets Administration. It was pointed out that the law specifically stated that this discount to educational institutions should be on the basis of "values that have accrued or may accrue to the nation," and that the 40 percent was an arbitrary figure based on a techni-

cal interpretation of their legal staff, and in no sense represented a fair appraisal of such value. It was pointed out also that the Congress had passed legislation making education a right for fifteen million veterans; that it had appropriated almost half a billion dollars to provide housing, more than half of which is allocated to colleges and universities; that the government has assisted in the release of faculty members from the armed forces; but that in the matter of the equally necessary aspect of education, namely physical equipment, the War Assets Administration had followed a niggardly policy and refused to adapt procedure to facilitate the flow of such property to educational institutions. This deadlock must be broken, and every effort will continue to be made to do so.

Fortunately not all surplus property has been disposed of through the War Assets Administration. Utilizing congressional action passed prior to the war, the Army has given vast quantities of materials to educational institutions; the Navy thus far has released very little. As of this date, the tendency is to restrict rather than to liberalize donations from both Army and Navy.

Such disposal, valuable as it is to the institutions which have procured the property, has been without order or organization. Large institutions have benefited, some of them receiving considerable quantities; but many of the smaller institutions, unable to keep "scouts" in the field looking for such material or to utilize it in the quantities available, have procured almost nothing.

The Council in cooperation with the Educational Buyers Association issued eight Surplus Property Newsletters to keep institutions informed of developments in government policies and to notify them of availability of surplus. Regulation 14 transferred this function to the United States Office of Education, and we were assured that they would initiate communication to educational institutions at such frequent intervals and at such a time as to keep them currently informed. Occasional reference to surplus property has since been made in the

Council bulletin, *Higher Education and National Affairs*, and two emergency supplements have dealt with this problem.

It is hoped that the next few months may bring order out of existing chaos, but the record thus far does not provide much basis for optimism.

Veterans' Education

A year ago colleges and universities were faced with a still shrinking enrollment; recommendations for federal assistance had been presented to Congress through a special committee of the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives. Today institutions are desperately struggling to provide adequate educational facilities for those who are seeking admission. The number of veterans in colleges and universities a year ago was less than 25,000. Today it is approximately 400,000; by September, it will probably be in excess of 750,000. To meet this unprecedented demand the over-all facilities of colleges and universities must be expanded by at least 25 percent, although the expansion is uneven among types of education.

The problem of veterans' education is not alone that of colleges and universities. It is equally a problem of adult education—from on-the-job training to instruction of a highly technical character in both privately and publicly controlled institutions. While a number of the public school systems have earnestly sought to meet this new need, all too many have felt that traditional adult education will suffice for the veteran. Some have believed they were meeting veterans' needs by permitting them to re-enroll in regular secondary and vocational schools.

The magnitude of the problem which all education faces is best indicated by the number of veterans who have applied for Certificates of Eligibility and Time-Entitlement. As late as December 1, 1945, the cumulative total of those who had applied for this certificate was less than 50,000; by January 31, 1946, it was approximately 1,000,000; and on March 31,

1946, the number was in excess of 2,000,000. Applications are being received by the Veterans' Administration at the rate of more than 15,000 a day. Not all of these are in training and education. But already the number who have indicated their intent by applying for the certificate is more than twice that of the most optimistic estimate of the total who would take advantage of the educational provisions of Public Laws 346 and 16.

Only two aspects of this problem can be included in this report: payment to institutions and veterans' housing. From the very first, the Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government has consistently taken the position that the cost of the education of the veteran was the responsibility of the federal government. The war had interrupted the education of many; it had changed the course of the lives of many others. Consequently, any program to compensate for the individual's losses due to war, whether by provisions, unemployment compensation, or education and training, should be made available through federal funds. Although in our judgment the law is clear on this point, the Veterans' Administration interpreted the law in such a manner as to place the decision for determining the amount of payment on each individual institution. Because of fees already announced, many of the publicly controlled institutions, including public school systems, feared to pass on the cost of educating the veteran and were subjected to pressure by well-meaning, but ill-advised, action of some of the veterans' organizations.

After many conferences, the December 27, 1945 amendment to the GI bill included two significant provisions. First, it specifically defined the basis of payment as "the cost of teaching personnel and essential supplies," and, second, it eliminated the possible deduction from the future bonus of any payment for benefits under the GI bill. Since the enactment of this legislation, the Veterans' Administration has issued a definite formula on the basis of which educational institutions can calculate the cost of teaching personnel. To this cost

figure, determined on a per-student semester-hour basis, is added "all customary fees that are not designated as 'tuition' fees such as hospital or health, library, incidental, student activity, student union, diploma, matriculation, laboratory, and course fees." Although even these calculations do not cover the entire cost of the education of the veteran for institutions with low or no tuition fees, it does cover a sufficient proportion of such cost as to make it possible for all educational institutions at all levels to provide the quality and variety of education to which the veteran is entitled.

The other aspect of veterans' education which has been of major interest to the Council's committee is that of veterans' housing. Within the year the Congress has appropriated almost half a billion dollars for veterans' housing. Of the first appropriation of 191 million, 30 percent was allocated to colleges. Of the second appropriation of 253 million, 55 percent has been so allocated. It is estimated that some 93,000 units, approximately half for families, will be placed on or adjacent to college campuses by September of this year. Facilities for another hundred thousand will be provided at points distant from the campus and transportation facilities will be made available. Another hundred thousand may be provided by utilizing war plants in defense areas as resident extension centers for colleges and universities. In some states, as in New York, such extension centers will be on a cooperative basis and administered by several institutions; in others, as in Wisconsin, they will be operated by a single institution. Perhaps equally important with provisions for housing is the acceptance by the national housing agencies of the principle of equivalency. Although housing provided under the Lanham Act must increase proportionately the enrollment of veterans, nonveterans may be housed in such facilities with the approval of the Federal Public Housing Authority provided veterans are placed in equal or better housing facilities.

A third important development in housing has been the designation by the Civilian Production Administration of housing on college campuses for priority in building material, again

recognizing the principle of equivalency up to 40 percent of the housing facilities provided.

It is now apparent that temporary housing is only one aspect of the problem of physical facilities to meet the greatly expanding needs of colleges and universities. The cost of temporary housing per unit is approximately five-eighths as much as that for permanent housing. There is a limit to which such expenditure is wise, whether by the federal government, which supplies the buildings, or by the institution, which provides the site, site preparation, and utilities connections to the site. There is frequently a limit, also, to the land available for one- or two-story buildings, especially trailers or Quonset huts.

Because of these limitations, legislation has been introduced to provide grants in and up to 50 percent for *permanent* educational facilities (including dormitories) to institutions in which veterans are enrolled. This bill (S. 1770) has not as yet been reported out by the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

But even if all housing needs were met—and the most that can be done will still be far too little—there is developing an equally serious shortage of classrooms, laboratories, libraries, infirmaries, gymnasiums, mess halls, and faculty offices. To meet this need on a temporary basis, S. 2085 has been introduced (companion bill H. R. 6952) authorizing the expenditure of \$150,000,000 for reconditioning or moving war structures for re-use by colleges and universities.

The Council's Committee will continue to work actively in support of these bills in the hope that they may be enacted before the Seventy-ninth Congress adjourns.

There are other problems of veterans' education that are of a deep concern to all of us. Higher institutions must maintain a balance between veterans and regular high school graduates. A failure to do so, despite pressure from veterans' organizations, will extend the losses of war to those too young to be participants in it. Already the consequences of veterans' preference are beginning to be felt nationally. Delinquency

has increased during the past year more rapidly than any year since accurate records have been kept and "age seventeen" is the most frequent on the police blotters of the nation. Colleges cannot afford to close their doors to the youth of the nation. Institutions are faced also with the problem of determining the extent to which expansion is to be purely on a temporary basis. It is perhaps well that most of the facilities of expansion are in terms of temporary housing that will not stand the wear of more than five years. Institutions will thus be given an opportunity to appraise whether their expansion could or should be permanent.

This applies also in terms of faculty appointment. The Council, in cooperation with the Veterans' Administration and the armed forces, has secured the release independent of the point system of some three hundred former and prospective faculty members from the Army and Navy. This has relieved a part of the shortage, and the Office of Education is now continuing this procedure. But in new appointments, the institution will need to determine whether the appointment should be on a temporary basis or on a presumed permanent basis.

It can be said without any hesitation that the veteran students are more serious, more earnest, and more eager in their pursuit of education than are typical college students either now or before the war. They have readily adjusted to the life and activities of the campus; the dire predictions of a few have proven false; instead, the veteran presents the most significant challenge ever faced by education. Educational institutions at all levels must meet this challenge lest this unprecedented opportunity be lost.

Science Legislation

The Committee on Relationships has actively followed the progress of science legislation to establish a national research foundation and scholarships and fellowships in the scientific field. It was unfortunate that two bills were originally introduced and that many months were lost in reconciling the dif-

ferences. On April 9, 1946, S. 1850 was favorably reported out of committee and is now before the Senate. The bill provides for research and scholarships and fellowships in both the physical and social sciences. But if any action is to be taken on it in this Congress, the active support of educational institutions and agencies must be enlisted.

This bill has very significant import for the future of education. It provides federal assistance in the development of research and sets up the channel for the consideration of such development both by governmental agencies and by educational institutions. It also provides for federal aid to selected students—a national need that will become more apparent as the number of federally subsidized veteran students begins to decline.

Social Security

In my report of a year ago, I indicated that legislation had been introduced in the Congress to expand the provision of the Social Security Act, including the extension of old age and survivors insurance and unemployment compensation to the personnel of educational institutions, both faculty and maintenance employees. A questionnaire submitted by the Council to the colleges when this legislation was previously proposed in 1942 indicated that the majority of institutions favored the inclusion of educational institutions in the system of old-age and survivors insurance, but were almost evenly divided on their inclusion in the provision for unemployment compensation.

In March of this year another questionnaire was submitted to a representative sampling of 100 institutions. It is significant to note that 44 percent favored the inclusion of faculty personnel in the unemployment provisions of the Wagner-Murray-Dingall bill; 56 percent were opposed. The percentages are exactly reversed in regard to the inclusion of maintenance personnel—56 percent favor their inclusion; 44 percent opposed. As a result of these polls of judgment the Council representatives testified before the Ways and Means

Committee in favor of inclusion of both faculty and maintenance personnel under old-age and survivors insurance and indicated the divided judgment on inclusion under unemployment compensation.

Army and Navy ROTC

During this past year the Navy has transferred its V-12 program to ROTC status. For a time it appeared that the Congress would withhold funds and compel the cancellation of ROTC, but through the support of education, funds were made available and the program was continued in the fifty-one institutions. The Navy has also prepared a program for its permanent NROTC which they hope can be initiated by September 1946. This involves, in brief, a competitive national examination, a lucrative scholarship during the four years on the campus, followed by a minimum of fifteen months of required active duty in the Navy. Whether or not this plan can be put into operation will depend upon the action of the Congress in providing adequate funds.

Plans of the Army for its permanent ROTC are now in process of formulation. Representatives of both the Army and Navy have spent many hours with the Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government. The Council is deeply gratified to have had this opportunity of close cooperation in the development of programs that will inevitably have far-reaching influence in the field of higher education.

In the projection of plans for the long-range reserve officer training program, it is generally conceded that the basic course alone is of little value. It seems necessary, therefore, to select individuals who will continue through both basic and advanced training. But such assumptions raise the issue of the extent to which the curriculum of the individual student and of the institution should be determined by the military. Only by close cooperation of the Army and Navy and the educational institutions can programs be developed that have value in the program of national defense and that also makes

it possible to maintain the broad educational objectives of higher education.

I should like to make one further general comment. There were some who assumed that the relationship of government and higher education, intensified by war, would become of less consequence in the postwar years. If this year is indicative of the trend (and I believe it is), this relationship will continue to be of more rather than less significance in the whole field of higher education. Very fundamental issues are raised that can be resolved only through the closest possible cooperation with all of the many government agencies that in one way or another impinge upon higher education.

Higher Education and National Affairs

During the year the bulletin, *Higher Education and National Affairs* (formerly *Higher Education and National Defense*), has continued to be published by the Council. A total of nineteen regular issues and two special issues have appeared. In addition ten emergency supplements, giving specific information on release of faculty members from the armed forces, housing, and veterans' education regulations have been sent to all college and university presidents. Due to the fact that the bulletin could no longer be carried through foundation grants, it has been necessary for the Council to institute a charge of \$2.00 a year for a single subscription, \$1.50 each per year for two to five copies to one address, and \$1.00 each per year for six or more copies to one address. It has continued to be sent free to Council members and to a number of persons in government service. It now requires a printing of 7,000 to meet the demand. Through these means of direct communication, the Council has sought continuously to interpret government policies to institutions of higher education.

Summary

In summary, it is clear that both the federal government and the institutions of higher education began early to prepare for the postwar years. But in spite of such planning, many

problems remain. Faculties depleted by war were not adequate to meet the tremendous influx of veterans and other students. There had been a complete cessation of construction of new buildings and even of other than essential repair during the four years of war. Income from student fees and from endowment had shrunk to the lowest level in a decade.

The year has brought a host of pressing problems as student enrollments shot upward and by September 1946 enrollments will be more than double what they were when colleges opened just one year before, September 1945. Institutions and government have joined hands to meet these problems with imagination, with foresight, and with courage.

But pressure of time has demanded that many of the problems be met only on a temporary basis. There is need now to lift our eyes from the immediate to the long-range future. Permanent buildings must be planned and erected; the mounting costs of construction make it impossible to pass on this full increase to students.

Administrative and faculty personnel must be trained, procured, and retained. This requires freedom from induction by Selective Service, higher salaries, and greater security.

The expansion of enrollment involves a re-examination of existing programs and courses. The years following World War I brought an upsurge in secondary school enrollments which demanded the remaking of the high school curriculum. The years following World War II may very likely do for college education what the 1920's did for secondary education.

We are facing a crucial year. We are on our way to solutions but the solutions have been of a type to meet emergencies. This next year higher education must lay its foundations for the years ahead.

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

No other activity has been carried on so long and so extensively by the American Council on Education as its program of tests and examinations. We first began to publish the Psychological Examinations, with the help of Professor and Mrs.

L. L. Thurstone, in 1924. Later, through Professor Thurstone's assistance the Tests of Primary Mental Abilities on both the college and high school levels were inaugurated. In the meantime, as a result of a grant of \$500,000 from the General Education Board, the Cooperative Test Service was set up under the auspices of the Council. Dr. Ben D. Wood was the director and the late Dean Herbert L. Hawkes was the chairman of the committee in general charge of this large enterprise. Still later, through a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, the teacher examination program was established. Two years ago, the Committee on Modern Languages undertook to produce an extensive battery of tests in connection with a survey in Puerto Rico to test the progress of Spanish-speaking people in learning English and vice versa. The Council is now cooperating in underwriting and distributing the public form of the Tests of General Educational Development, USAFI high school and college subject tests for veterans.

Also, the Council pioneered in producing a comprehensive student-record form which is being widely used and adopted by institutions. It encouraged the development of a scoring machine which has brought the use of tests well within the financial resources of all types of institutions. And it has, especially through the indefatigable efforts of Dr. Wood, encouraged colleges and local school systems throughout the country to set up their own facilities for diagnosing the characteristics and educational achievements of students and for testing the effectiveness of instruction. In this manner it has contributed powerfully to the guidance and personnel movement which is now regarded as central to any modern program of education.

As a result of this developing program, continued under very substantial difficulties during the war, the Council is now by all odds the largest and most extensive noncommercial producing and distributing agency operating within the schools and colleges of the country. In the past five years, with college enrollments steadily slipping downward, the total number of tests distributed by the Council is as follows: 1941-42,

1,371,075; 1942-43, 1,179,254; 1943-44, 1,170,885; 1944-45, 1,167,983; 1945-46, 1,350,000.¹ The number shown for 1945-46 is estimated on sales of the first six months. Contributing to this situation has been the steady use of the Psychological Examination each autumn in approximately three hundred colleges and universities and the sophomore testing program in about three hundred institutions. In the past few months one recently developed test alone, *A Nationwide High School Test on Social and Scientific Developments in the World Today*, was distributed to 664 high schools in all but four states in the union and taken by approximately 150,000 students.

Each step in this developing program was the result of a careful exploration of test needs at the time. There was at the outset an extensive canvass of the situation by Dean Hawkes and his committee which resulted in setting up the Cooperative Test Service under the auspices of the Council. In the middle of the ten-year period covered by the grant for the Cooperative Test Service, there was a review of the testing situation by a special committee of the Council, under the chairmanship of the late President Raymond A. Kent of the University of Louisville, which resulted in certain modifications of the Cooperative Tests program and the development of the Primary Mental Abilities Tests. Again, toward the end of the ten-year grant, there was another survey of test needs, covering more than a year, under the direction of Philip Rulon of Harvard University. This study also recommends certain changes in the Council's program which have to some extent been held up by the war. In the meantime, as the result of many exploratory conferences, the Teacher Examinations program was established. In 1936 Dean Hawkes served as the editor of a book produced by a number of outstanding test leaders which marked the progress which had been made in the various fields of testing up to that time. A

¹ These figures do not include the Psychological Examinations or the Tests of Primary Mental Abilities distributed by the Council. The receipts from these tests have varied between \$20,000 and \$30,000 per year for the same five-year period.

similar, but more extensive effort, is now under way, under the editorship of E. F. Lindquist, of the State University of Iowa, through a subsidy of \$20,000 from the Grant Foundation. Finally, the Committee on Measurement and Guidance, under whose general direction the Council's testing program has been conducted, has held a large number of conferences to appraise the progress and needs of the test situation from time to time. I believe, therefore, that the Council has made a great contribution to the development of this exceedingly important field of education.

Nevertheless, as must be apparent to any discerning educator, we have only scratched the surface of possibilities in the testing field. Fortunately, neither the fears of those who, in the early days, saw the curriculum being frozen nor the wild dreams of certain test enthusiasts have been realized as a result of the developments in the testing movement. We can now view the situation with more calmness and detachment. Certainly, it is widely agreed that this movement has the greatest possibilities for education through the development of instruments which assist in evaluating the interests, capacities, and progress of individuals. Whatever success attends these efforts assists both the teacher and the pupil to determine the course of study which each individual should follow. Such a program involving human beings, each of whom differs in some respect from all others, can never be reduced to an exact science, but it is capable of developing procedures for securing information about individuals, which are exceedingly useful in the processes of education. In fact, I know of no other area of education which is of greater importance to the profession as a whole and hence to the American Council on Education.

It is not easy in dealing with so complex a situation to identify the next most-needed areas of test development. However, the present Teacher Examinations, the national examinations in the field of medicine, and current developments in engineering and nursing examinations all point to the need for similar developments in other fields such as home

economics and vocational education. The Psychological Examination as a test for general ability has already been broken down into its component parts which need more research before we can tell what they mean in terms of predicting success in following a particular profession. Aptitude testing reached new heights of success in the armed forces during World War II, but we still need to explore this field extensively for tests which will be useful in schools and colleges. A difficult but exceedingly important area, not only for use in educational institutions but also in business and industry, is the testing of personality characteristics—an area which needs improvement and extension. And so it goes with many other important areas in testing which also need attention and further development. We are at the end of an era in testing and at the beginning of a new one. I trust, therefore, that this extremely significant area of education will receive the financial support and the necessary organization of research, production, and distribution to assure equal, if not greater, progress in this field during the next twenty years as against the noteworthy record of the past two decades.

In this connection, it should constantly be kept in mind that there is little, if any, point in research in testing unless educational administrators and teachers know how to use tests. This knowledge should include not only an appreciation of the uses and limitations of national tests but also the ability to *construct those which can best serve a local purpose*. To meet this need there have been developed numerous courses in the field of testing in teacher education institutions. Notwithstanding this fact, there is a constant widespread demand for assistance and advice from teachers and officials in school systems and colleges throughout the country. Several years ago the Council undertook to establish such an advisory service, but on account of the war was forced to reduce its scope. There is a crying need for its strengthening, and I trust that we may give further consideration to the matter in the early future.

Thus far I have emphasized the importance of the testing

field, the growth of the Council's contribution to it, and the pressing need for further developments in testing over the years to come. How shall this expansion be undertaken, and what part should the Council take in it? At this point one must realize that important as the Council has been in the testing movement it is not the only organization which has been active in the field. The College Entrance Examination Board has a long history in a specialized field which has recently been enhanced by its record of assistance to the armed services. There have been several notable statewide examination programs as those, for example, in New York State, Ohio, and Iowa. Individual universities such as Stanford, Chicago, Minnesota, and Columbia have made important contributions. The Educational Records Bureau has done a splendid job in assisting and advising schools in the wide use of tests. Finally, there has been the pioneer work of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in the Graduate Record and the Engineering Examinations.

It will be noted that all of these efforts in the testing field have been undertaken by various parts of the organized educational profession. While many authors of tests have made arrangements with commercial companies to publish and distribute their tests (as is the custom with respect to the publication and distribution of textbooks), the organized educational profession seems to feel rather deeply that not only the leadership in test research but also the publication and distribution of tests should be carried on largely under its auspices.

There are, of course, definite reasons for this feeling. In the first place, tests in the various subject-matter fields are regarded as more trustworthy if they are the joint product of recognized leaders in the field. Secondly, it is impossible to standardize tests except by trying them out on a considerable population of students. Third, testing programs require extensive application in various parts of the country and in various types of institutions if they are to yield significant results. Finally, national testing programs in the various professional and specialized subject-matter fields should be under-

taken in cooperation with the educational and professional organizations representing these fields. An individual institution, whether large or small, in order to secure the greatest benefits must, therefore, become a part of a larger cooperative enterprise. The larger and more extensive the enterprise, the more economically it can be conducted and the more varied its services. All of these steps require the cordial cooperation of considerable numbers of the educational profession. They want to feel, and they should feel, that the whole process belongs to them and that the educational organization which undertakes testing projects is responsible to them.

From time to time, during the past ten years, there have been suggestions as to the wisdom of merging or at least bringing about more cooperation among the several major organizations operating in the testing field. There can scarcely be any question as to the possible economies which might thereby be effected. Moreover, overlapping testing programs which are now being considered could thus be avoided. Examination centers would not be duplicated. An effective test advisory service could probably be more easily established. *If additional funds were available, a further extensive program of research, production, and distribution could be undertaken, which should be very beneficial to American education.*

The Council's Committee on Measurement and Guidance, now under the chairmanship of T. R. McConnell, has given this problem much thought from time to time, including the two studies of the test situation undertaken by President Kent's committee in 1936 and by Dr. Rulon's committee in 1943. Certain observations on this matter arise out of our experience. In the first place, any merger should be based squarely on a membership organization widely representative of, and under the control of, the schools and colleges of the country. Anything in the nature of a self-perpetuating group, especially if it represented primarily one section of the country or only a small portion of the schools and colleges, would have difficulty in convincing the educational profession as a whole that it belonged to them. Secondly, it must be organized in such a way

as to be able to plan and conduct long-term research programs in which the widest possible use is made of the talents and contributions of various leaders in the testing field. Third, it must have a well-developed system of examination and test-distribution centers. Fourth, it must be able to establish and maintain vigorous cooperative programs of testing with the various educational and professional organizations interested in these respective fields. Finally, it must be prepared to render impartial and extensive advisory services to the schools and colleges throughout the country with respect to the use of tests.

It seems appropriate to suggest that extended consideration should be given to the possible organization of such an enlarged cooperative testing program under the auspices of the American Council on Education. In the first place, the Council has already developed the most extensive and varied non-commercial testing program now in existence. There is, therefore, much experience on which to build. Secondly, the Council is a thoroughly comprehensive body in American education based on representation from nearly all of the important national and regional organizations in education and on representation from nearly eight hundred colleges, universities, and school systems. It seems quite unlikely that any new organization for a specialized purpose could within the early future secure such a broad membership basis for its operation. In the third place, the Council has developed sufficient contacts with colleges, school systems, and its own member organizations in this and many other fields to assure both the most cordial support from test leaders and widespread confidence in its test programs and activities from teachers and educational administrators in all sections of the country.

I have reviewed this situation in testing at some length because it is perhaps the continuing Number One field of American education. It is full of problems and possibilities which, now that the war is over, deserve the most serious and careful consideration. I have also made passing reference to some

of the specific projects in the field of tests and measurements which are now in operation under the general auspices of the Council. It may be well at this point to give a more detailed résumé of some of these activities.

Measurement and Guidance

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance, under the chairmanship of T. R. McConnell, has this year initiated new projects which promise great significance for the whole field of educational and psychological measurement. The projects undertaken have required frequent and extended meetings of the committee and of the officers of the Council. It is most gratifying to note here that the chairman and the members of this committee have given most freely to their time and energy in application to the problems of educational measurement now confronting American education.

At its June meeting the Committee on Measurement and Guidance approved the measurement book project. This proposed project was a result of a series of discussions instigated partly by the need for a revision of the American Council publication *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations* by Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann. At a conference held in Williamsburg, Virginia, April 17-19, 1945, a planning group proposed the preparation of an authoritative volume on educational measurement. There has long been an urgent need in education for an authoritative and inclusive exposition of the theory and technique of educational measurement—for a volume that may serve both as a comprehensive reference and handbook for workers in the field and as a basic textbook in advanced graduate courses in educational measurement. The book which is now planned will bring together in well-integrated form everything worthwhile about measurement theory and techniques that has been published to date in widely scattered and often inaccessible pamphlets, manuals, bulletins, and texts. It is expected also that it will provide an opportunity for measurement workers to record observations

and experiences that have never before been recorded and might otherwise never be written down—observations often more valuable than those that have been published.

The plans for the measurement book project call for the collaboration of a large number of specialists. Present plans specify a volume of twenty chapters, each written by a recognized specialist in the area and with the assistance of from six to seven collaborators whose special interests particularly equip them as editors and critics. The members of the group planning the measurement book project were: W. W. Cook, John C. Flanagan, E. F. Lindquist (chairman), Irving Lorge, T. R. McConnell, Phillip J. Rulon, Donald J. Shank, John M. Stalnaker, Ralph W. Tyler, K. W. Vaughn, and Ben D. Wood. This planning group will serve as the board of editors with E. F. Lindquist as editor-in-chief.

After the plans for the measurement book project were formally approved by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance, the officers of the Council were successful in securing from the W. T. Grant Foundation an appropriation of \$20,000 with which to support the work of the project. The first installment of this appropriation was paid during the past year, and the remaining installments will be paid as the work progresses.

At the time the United States Armed Forces Institute was established, the Committee on Measurement and Guidance assumed responsibility for the distribution of the civilian forms of the USAFI tests. During the past year, this project was completed. The complete set of special subject tests is now in published form and is being distributed through the Cooperative Test Service. To provide norms for these tests, a nationwide standardization program was conducted under the joint sponsorship of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance and the United States Armed Forces Institute. This standardization program was completed during the fall of 1945; the published norms are now being distributed by the Cooperative Test Service.

Early in the year, the executive committee of the Cooperative Test Service reviewed the status and progress of the Cooperative Test Service and laid extensive plans for the development of the test-construction program. These plans provided for the reconversion of the Cooperative Test Service to a peacetime basis and involve the development of a large number of new tests and an extension into several new fields.

The committee also has laid plans for the resumption of the educational conferences held in collaboration with the Educational Records Bureau previous to 1943. The next educational conference will be held in New York City on October 30 and 31, 1946. In conjunction with this conference, the Committee on Measurement and Guidance will again sponsor its conference of testing leaders.

In June 1945 the American Home Economics Association appointed the Evaluation Committee with Professor Clara M. Brown of the University of Minnesota as chairman. This committee was a direct outgrowth of a joint committee of the American Council on Education and the American Home Economics Association. Joint sponsorship by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance and the Evaluation Committee of the American Home Economics Association is now producing a series of examinations in home economics which may have considerable significance for the extension of measurement in that field.

The Council has, from time to time, sponsored committees and commissions which have reviewed the problems of educational measurement. During the past year, the Committee on Measurement and Guidance has explored the possibility of closer cooperation with the Graduate Record Examination Office of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. A commission appointed by Carnegie Corporation will review the testing movement and the future direction of the services of the major nonprofit agencies now publishing and distributing educational tests on a national scale. The Committee on Measurement and Guidance and officers of the

Council have been invited to participate in these discussions which will bear directly on this important function of the American Council.

Cooperative Test Service

Postwar conditions in secondary schools and colleges in this country demonstrate now more than ever before the extensive need for dependable measures of educational achievement. Apparent, also, is an increased awareness of the uses of objective tests in the educational placement and guidance of individual students. These trends are reflected in the activities of the Cooperative Test Service. The demand for the Cooperative Tests has far exceeded our expectations. While the number of tests distributed last year totaled almost one and one-quarter million, it is probable that the number of tests distributed this year will exceed this amount by one-half million tests.

The executive committee of the Cooperative Test Service has reviewed from time to time the needs of the Service and together with the staff has perfected plans for an increased scope of activities. As a result of these plans, a large test-construction program is now well under way. It is expected that the 1947 catalogue of the Cooperative Test Service will include approximately sixty new tests which are the product of the staff and its numerous consultants during the past year. In addition to the test materials developed by the staff and numerous committees of the Service, the 1947 test catalogue will list the test materials developed by the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. Full rights to this series of tests were acquired by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance during the past year.

Foremost among the activities of the Cooperative Test Service during the past year is the first Nationwide High School Testing Program. This program, which has just been completed, included more than 145,000 students in 750 high schools located in forty-four of the forty-eight states. Em-

phasizing an important outcome of general education at the secondary school level, this program was concerned with the high school student's knowledge and understanding of recent social and scientific developments. While the results are not yet available, it is expected that secondary school principals, teachers, and students will derive valuable evidence of the extent to which this important objective is being realized. Of particular note is the fact that in connection with this testing program the Cooperative Test Service will provide a discussion of the implications of the testing program for the instructional process. Howard Anderson of the federal Office of Education is preparing this brochure.

The Nationwide High School Testing Program is noteworthy for a second reason: it represents a truly cooperative program conducted on a national scale. Sponsored by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance, the program was conducted jointly by the Cooperative Test Service and the State University of Iowa. Professor E. F. Lindquist, State University of Iowa, and K. W. Vaughn, associate director of the Cooperative Test Service, directed this program which coordinated successfully the services of a national testing agency and of a state testing service. This type of cooperation may have important implications for the future development of the Cooperative Test Service.

The current need for educational tests in colleges is amply demonstrated in the National College Freshman Testing Program and the National College Sophomore Testing Program conducted by the Cooperative Test Service. The sale of Cooperative Tests for the purposes of guidance and placement in college freshman and sophomore classes has increased more than 100 percent during the past year. The 1946 National College Sophomore Testing Program included approximately one hundred sixty colleges and more than 80,000 tests were used in this program alone. It is clear that the Cooperative Test Service is serving an important function in meeting the measurement needs of colleges and universities.

The use of the United States Armed Forces Institute Tests of General Educational Development has become extensive. Through the joint efforts of the Cooperative Test Service, the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, and the Veterans' Testing Service, the value of these tests has been demonstrated to secondary school and college officials. The Veterans' Testing Service, which is sponsored and supported by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance and is conducted in cooperation with the University of Chicago, has established more than two hundred centers at which students may secure the regular Army edition of the USAFI tests. In this connection, the Veterans' Testing Service has played an important role in providing USAFI tests to returned veterans who are not enrolled in a school or college and who for some purpose wish to present a record of the results of this series of tests to an educational agency. The past several months have revealed a greatly increased need for this type of service.

The demand for materials published by the Cooperative Test Service insures the organization on a sound, self-supporting basis. Preliminary explorations of the need for new tests in the fields of general education at both the secondary and college level reveal areas in which tests should be developed. The extension of the work of the Cooperative Test Service to these areas and the inclusion of other new fields, for example, technical and vocational education, will further insure the success of this phase of the Council's service to secondary schools and colleges.

National Teacher Examinations

The 1946 administration of the National Teacher Examinations was conducted on February 9 and 16. The response in terms of numbers tested was encouraging considering the unusual shortage of teachers and the reluctance of superintendents to require standards that would seem prohibitively high.

The administrative procedures differed in several respects

from those followed in the earlier programs of the Teacher Examinations. These features had been approved by the national committee at its November 1, 1944 meeting with a view to (1) making the examinations more accessible to candidates, and (2) enhancing the usefulness of the results in the hands of administrators.

For the first time in the Teacher Examinations program, candidates were permitted to take (a) the common examinations and optional examinations of their choice, (b) common examinations alone, or (c) certain optional examinations alone. In order to make this schedule practicable, the testing time for the common examinations was reduced slightly to allow administration of this battery of tests in one day. The optional examinations, or subject-matter tests, were constructed so as to be of uniform length and were administered at a second session. The practice of administering the tests on a Friday and the Saturday following was discontinued, the common examinations being offered on Saturday, February 9, and the optional examinations one week later on Saturday, February 16.

The new edition of the common examination battery consisted of ten sections or tests. Two of these were designed as aptitude measures and were administered under the titles of Nonverbal Reasoning and Verbal Comprehension. A test of English Expression covered various phases of English usage and effectiveness of expression. Three tests, (1) History, Literature, and Fine Arts, (2) Science and Mathematics, (3) Contemporary Affairs, measuring the candidate's background of general culture or general education were included in the battery. Professional information in the field of education was tested with regard to four different areas, (1) education and social policy, (2) child development and educational psychology, (3) guidance and individual and group analysis, and (4) general principles and methods of teaching.

In constructing both the tests comprising the common examinations and the special subject-matter examinations in the

various fields, every effort was made to provide items that were as functional as possible, with emphasis upon applications of principles and facts to specific situations.

Registered full-time students in accredited institutions of higher learning were permitted to apply to take the National Teacher Examinations in 1946 at a reduced "student fee." The services offered education students under this plan were exactly those provided regular candidates in so far as scope of the examinations was concerned. In reporting the results, however, only two copies of the examination report were prepared—one for the student and one for the college. It was intended that the use of these Teacher Examination records should enable students to study their strengths and weaknesses in knowledge of professional and cultural-background materials.

The 1946 Teacher Examination program was publicized throughout the country beginning in September 1945 through direct mailings to superintendents of cities with populations of over 2,500 and to the presidents and deans of colleges and universities. Superintendents were encouraged to list their school systems as "cooperating school systems" if they expected to require or recommend that candidates for positions present National Teacher Examination results along with other credentials at the time of application.

A total of 64 centers participated in the 1946 administration. Of these centers, 28 were conducted by school systems and 36 by colleges. A total of 2,841 candidates applied to take the common examinations and 2,793 to take the optional examinations. This represents an increase of approximately 1,000 candidates over 1945. The number of candidates actually taking the tests was reduced by absence to approximately 2,600 for the common examinations and 2,400 for the optional examinations. Roughly two-fifths of the candidates were students and three-fifths were individuals who had completed their training. Many of these were already employed but were seeking new positions.

The South Carolina State Board of Education again requested the facilities and services of the National Committee in connection with their program of certification of teachers. Approximately 6,000 candidates were tested in a special administration in October 1945 and approximately 4,000 candidates in March 1946.

Psychological Examinations

The twenty-second annual form of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen was issued in 1945 in an edition of over 15,000 with requisite manuals of instruction, answer sheets, and scoring stencils. The printing and distribution of the Council's Psychological Examination for High School Students was also continued, with an edition of 50,000 copies. The forms for both tests were prepared, as usual, by Dr. and Mrs. L. L. Thurstone. Three hundred and twenty-nine of the institutions which used the 1945 college tests reported scores for more than 40,000 students, the norms for which were published by the Council in May 1946, as No. 10 of Series V of the Council's Studies. These tests had a wider distribution in 1945-46 than in any previous year. In addition to the current form of the tests, distribution of previous editions continues in substantial quantities.

Primary Mental Abilities Tests

Work on the validation of Primary Mental Abilities Tests has continued during the year under the grant by the Carnegie Corporation. Information which centers about the interests, mental profiles, and choice of curriculum of some forty atypical cases has been assembled from material available in the Chicago public schools and several private schools. Dr. and Mrs. Thurstone plan to write a monograph helpful to those who interpret the tests. A test of primary mental abilities for six-year-olds has been printed for use during the forthcoming year.

Cumulative Records for Schools and Colleges

It will be remembered that one of the important contributions to the processes of evaluation which has been made by the Council was the Cumulative Record Cards first issued for colleges and for secondary schools in 1928 and since used in many institutions of higher education in the original or some modified form suitable to the needs of individual institutions.

For some time it has been apparent that these Cumulative Record Cards should be revised. A subcommittee, Eugene R. Smith, chairman, has been engaged in this important enterprise.

This committee was assigned the task of revising existing forms of cumulative records and preparing new forms for the various school levels and for colleges, with such explanatory material as proved necessary. All new and revised forms have now been completed and printed, including one for the three primary years, one for the next three grades, one for junior and senior high schools, and one for colleges.

For the first time the Council has prepared forms adapted to keeping records for young children, but those for high schools and colleges are a second edition, the first forms having been prepared by the former committee. Attempt has been made to take advantage of advances in the field of recording in recent years and to offer forms that include all the information that should be kept and which can be collected without too great demands on the teachers. It is hoped that many institutions will use the forms as they are, but the committee realizes that not all teachers can find time to keep them completely. It recommends, therefore, that institutions use such parts as prove most valuable, or use these forms as a basis for ones that more nearly fit their own needs when that seems necessary. They have importance only as a contribution to better understanding of students and better guidance of them.

STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

In 1926 the Council established a Committee on Personnel Methods with a distinguished membership under the chair-

manship of the late Herbert E. Hawkes. The contributions which this committee made to progressive practices in individualizing education are well known. I am proud that in 1946 the Council's Committee on Student Personnel Work, a direct offspring of that pioneering body, continues under the chairmanship of E. G. Williamson to exert a constructive influence upon American higher education. As student personnel work—the development of the intellectual, personal, and social abilities of the individual—moves forward, the whole educational process is broadened and enriched.

In recent years, the Council's committee has been engaged in the preparation of a series of booklets dealing with specific aspects of personnel work in colleges and universities. Since the committee has only limited financial resources from the Edward W. Hazen Foundation, this work has depended upon the voluntary cooperation of individuals in groups throughout the country. The record demonstrates that the Council and the committee have been fortunate in securing the assistance of outstanding workers on this important task.

There will soon come from the press the most recent of these pamphlets, *Financial Assistance for College Students*, under the general editorship of Russell T. Sharpe. Two other studies are in manuscript. The first deals with the use of tests in colleges and universities and is designed for the nontechnical worker. John G. Darley is chairman of the subcommittee preparing this manuscript. The second, *Mental Hygiene in Colleges and Universities*, has been prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Kate Heyner Mueller.

Committees have recently been formed to prepare pamphlets dealing with the housing of college students and faculty counseling. In addition, W. H. Cowley is chairman of a subcommittee which is working on a pamphlet analyzing student mores and student life.

All of us regret that the production of this series of pamphlets must move so slowly. In a sense, however, this is an advantage. The busy men and women who give their time freely to this work are the persons who are actually engaged in

developing and operating programs within institutions. The pamphlets, therefore, mirror the problems which are facing students and faculty.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

The Place of Education in the United Nations Charter

Within the year covered by this report World War II was concluded. At this time last year it was my privilege as the representative of the American Council on Education, one of the forty-two organizations invited to send consultants to the San Francisco Conference, to be present at that noteworthy gathering. Other types of organizations similarly represented at the Conference included labor, agriculture, and business. Through this arrangement there were frequent meetings between the consultants as a group and as individuals with the American delegation.

This device for enabling the representatives of government and of voluntary organizations to confer on matters of great national importance was a notable success from the point of view of both groups. Certainly there are a number of provisions in the San Francisco Charter which may be traced directly to the influence of the consultants representing the voluntary organizations at the San Francisco Conference.

Among these provisions is the recognition given to education in the charter. I have had the opportunity to tell this story at length in our bulletin, *Higher Education and National Affairs*. Suffice it to say that the United States delegation, probably fearing adverse reaction in Congress, had decided not to recognize education as a basic necessity in the preservation of international peace. The broader and less definite term "cultural" was to be substituted. As a result, however, of the combined insistence of the agricultural, business, labor, and educational organizations represented at the Conference, the American delegation reversed its position and was then able without difficulty to secure a recognition of the function of education, especially in those sections of the charter dealing with the Economic and Social Council and with dependencies,

in the preservation of peace. I believe it was a great victory which we owe in considerable part to the staunch support of our friends representing the agriculture, business, and labor organizations.

The Place of Education in the Proposed UNESCO Charter

Then came the London Conference in November where in the remarkably short time of approximately two weeks the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization was built. This is, of course, an overstatement because various drafts of the UNESCO Charter had been worked over months in advance and the documents rest on two decades of experience with the Commission on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations and the International Bureau of Education. Nevertheless, the UNESCO Charter is a great achievement which now awaits approval by the United States government and at least seventeen others before it can be put into operation. Two nations, Great Britain and New Zealand, have already taken the necessary steps. Twenty nations in all are required.

As is now well known, the charter contemplates a general assembly of five delegates from each member-nation, an executive council of eighteen members and a director general in charge of the staff. The charter also authorizes each member-nation to set up a national commission representing the major "bodies" in the country devoted to educational, scientific, and cultural affairs.

The method of selecting this national commission has stirred up considerable discussion in this country. The bill now before Congress provides for a commission of thirty members appointed by the Secretary of State representing governmental agencies and the educational, scientific, and cultural "interests." To this provision, there has been vigorous opposition on the grounds that the organizations operating in these several fields could better do the job themselves. With this point of view I have a good deal of sympathy because, I believe, these organizations are especially conversant with the leading

personnel in the respective fields and the major problems which ought to be considered. However, as everyone knows there are so many organizations operating in the several fields to be covered by UNESCO as to make it necessary for someone, presumably the State Department, to select either the individuals themselves or the organizations which would do the selecting. Under these circumstances, in my testimony before the House Foreign Affairs Committee a few weeks ago I took the position that the most practicable and satisfactory way would be to have the State Department make the appointments to the national commission.

The recognition now accorded to the place of international education in this country is, of course, no accident. It is the result of the expenditure of a great deal of time and effort both on the part of government and the voluntary educational agencies.

The organization of the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs of the State Department was established in 1938. Thus far its work has been confined to relationships with the Latin American countries except for the *expenditure of certain funds allotted to it from the President's War Emergency Fund* for other parts of the world. There was also established the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs which has engaged in an extensive series of activities, notably certain selected projects undertaken co-operatively with the educational authorities in most of the Latin American countries. Practically all of the projects initiated by the Coordinator's office have now been or are in process of being taken over by the State Department.

Yet, before the United States can become thoroughly effective in the international education situation, certain additional steps are necessary. First, the Congress must pass the legislation now before it authorizing the extension of its cultural relations program to other than Latin American countries. It must also pass the legislation authorizing the United States' participation in UNESCO. Thereafter, the State Department must select the individuals to represent this country at

UNESCO headquarters and in the national commission contemplated in that legislation.

These activities are all necessarily governmental functions, and they involve the expenditure of considerable funds for such items as the exchange of students, cultural relations officers, libraries, the support of American schools abroad, cultural institutes and studies. When the program of UNESCO is developed, the government's international program should be further expanded accordingly.

The Place of Voluntary Organizations in International Education

In view of the extensive efforts in the field of educational and cultural relations already engaged in by the State Department and the additional ones impending, what is the future place of the voluntary agencies which for so many years pioneered in and bore the burden of what was done in this country with respect to international education?

The first answer is that they have got behind the extension of the government's efforts into the field of international education enthusiastically and consistently. Had this not been the case, it would not have been possible for the government to have made progress with respect to this program so rapidly. I believe that this cordial cooperation will continue.

Yet the question of the place of the voluntary educational agencies in the international program keeps bobbing up. In this connection I wish to repeat the statement which was submitted to the State Department two years ago by the officers of several of the voluntary organizations (including the American Council on Education) which have assisted the State Department in the cultural relations program from time to time, as follows:

They strongly recommend that, in the operation of any government-supported program of international cultural relations, recourse should be had so far as possible to nongovernmental agencies, noncommercial in character, representative of American interests in their respective fields, whose objectives are purely educational, scholarly, and scientific,

and whose experience qualifies them to serve the government within their respective fields of activity.

They point out that the organizations which they represent are recognized in the United States and in other countries as representatives of their respective areas of interest on a national scale, and that they have had continuous experience in the promotion of international intellectual and cultural relations for more than a quarter of a century. They also point out that they have had experience in conducting cultural relations operations in the inter-American area on behalf of government agencies, through the expenditure of government funds.

I am pleased to say that the government officials received these recommendations cordially, and the American Council has completed, or is now carrying on, the following activities for the Coordinator's Office or for the State Department: a survey which is reported in *Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials*, published by the Council in 1944; a series of filmstrips descriptive of various phases of American life which were distributed in Latin American countries; a series of color filmslides descriptive of life in Latin American countries, for use in the United States; a series of eight pamphlets describing various phases of education in the United States for distribution in Latin America; distribution of funds for the support of the Inter-American Schools Service and for limited distribution to American-sponsored schools in Latin American countries; limited funds to assist certain colleges in China; and, finally a study of education in the Arabic-speaking countries of the Near East. The series of pamphlets originally prepared for distribution in Latin America were later translated into Italian for use by the Allied Military Government in Italy. So far as I know, the government officials have been greatly pleased with the results of all of these activities undertaken by contract with the American Council on Education. The present legislation now in Congress specifically authorizes the continuation of such cooperative relationship between the State Department and the voluntary agencies. I believe that it is a healthy sign and

in accordance with American tradition if the voluntary agencies in this country actually administer a substantial portion of this country's international educational program.

There are some further tasks, however, which confront the voluntary educational organizations. For example, the UNESCO Charter provides that each government may set up a national commission representative of the principal "bodies" in the fields of education, science, and culture. The present legislation now before Congress authorizes the Secretary of State to appoint the members of the national commission in this country. This seems to me to be a more practical method than to attempt to work out a scheme whereby the almost innumerable voluntary organizations operating in this field should themselves elect such representatives. At the same time, I am sure that the State Department will do well in this matter to follow as closely as possible the very evident spirit of the UNESCO constitution.

The actions of the State Department will, however, naturally depend in no small part on the initiative and interest exhibited by the various voluntary organizations. It is very evident that such organizations should constantly be pushing up proposals and projects for UNESCO's consideration, and, furthermore, it is just as clear that these organizations should serve as channels of communication to the schools and colleges of the country with respect to the various programs which UNESCO has under way.

In this respect the American Council on Education has already taken a certain amount of initiative in connection with the work of the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO. For example, it has raised with the State Department the possibility of revising and establishing on a sound basis the international exchange, duty-free, of educational films and auditory materials of instruction. Such an international activity, if properly established, could in no small way contribute to the mutual understanding so necessary to the preservation of enduring peace.

Educational Rehabilitation in War-Devastated Areas

But more important and more immediately necessary is action with respect to the educational rehabilitation of the war-devastated countries. As is generally known, UNRRA is prevented from using its limited resources in meeting the pressing needs for educational supplies in the war-devastated countries except for facilitating the transportation of contributed supplies and certain incidental services. Moreover, except for the Far East, UNRRA is authorized to carry on activities only until the end of the present calendar year.

In view of this situation, there was extended debate at the London Conference as to whether UNESCO should not attempt to provide funds for educational rehabilitation. The American delegation rightly, it seems to me, took the position that UNESCO must be devoted to the continuing basic needs of mutual understanding and should not attempt to serve as a relief organization for which it is probably not well suited. The debate resulted in a compromise to the effect that the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO should attempt to make a catalogue of the extent and character of the educational rehabilitation needs of the war-devastated countries for such use as might be made of it.

This information is now at hand both officially and through the observation of hundreds of Americans who in one way or another have been able to witness the situation in the war-devastated countries at first hand. The simple facts are that during the war large numbers of school buildings and libraries were burned to the ground. Thousands of intellectuals, including teachers and professors in Poland and elsewhere, were ruthlessly destroyed. Textbooks were burned. Children were taught to lie and steal in order to outwit the enemy. As a result, today there are millions of children in the war-devastated countries who have never been to school, who have no books, no pencils, no paper, and no teachers, and who as a result of the total situation are warped both in body and mind.

We cannot be indifferent to this situation, because even now

as we sit quietly here in these comfortable surroundings either war or peace is in the making. We have it largely in our power to determine which it shall be by deciding whether we are going to continue to look upon this tragic situation indifferently or whether we shall resolve to do something to feed the starving minds and spirits as well as the bodies of children and youth in the war-devastated countries.

With a realization of this situation in mind, the Council has recently set up a committee, T. G. Pullen, Jr., chairman, in consultation with a number of major organizations in American education to carry on a campaign, which may last for several years, to secure funds and supplies for educational rehabilitation abroad. We have here assembled, at the annual meeting of the American Council on Education, the representatives of the major educational organizations and higher institutions and many of the larger school systems of the country. I believe that this responsibility for educational rehabilitation abroad is our inescapable responsibility. I trust, therefore, that you will do everything in your power to facilitate the work of the committee named by the Council. About the serious need for such action, you will hear more from Mrs. Esther Caukin Brunauer, United States representative to the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO, tomorrow morning.

In closing this statement on international education, I hope that you will keep in mind that this discussion of educational rehabilitation abroad began with my statement to the effect that no matter in what way the national commission of UNESCO is selected in this country and no matter how important may be its considerations, a large portion of the program in which it engages should be initiated by voluntary organizations such as the American Council on Education. Equally important is the program of dissemination of information as to UNESCO activities for which the voluntary agencies are peculiarly fitted. In this way, the American Council on Education can—and I sincerely hope it will—make a substantial contribution to enduring international peace and good will.

THE CANADA-UNITED STATES COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

The Canada-United States Committee on Education, J. B. Edmonson and Fletcher Peacock, co-chairmen, was organized in the autumn of 1944 as a joint, nongovernmental committee. The first meeting of the committee was called under the auspices of the American Council on Education, which has continued to sponsor the committee in cooperation with the Canada-Newfoundland Educational Association, the Canadian Teachers Federation, and the National Conference of Canadian Universities. The committee is committed to the viewpoint that good relations between Canada and the United States are of vital importance to their people as well as to the rest of the world. It is also believed by the committee that good relations do not "just happen"; they must be cultivated. The program of the Canada-United States Committee on Education is a significant part of that cultivation.

During its first year the committee was financed by grants from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace and the Canadian Council on Education for Citizenship. A special grant was received from the Marshall Field Foundation for the survey of the history textbooks used in the schools of the two countries. The committee's second year began with a grant from the Carnegie Endowment for the support of meetings of the committee.

During the first year of its existence the committee (1) secured the establishment in 1945 of summer school workshops on Canada-United States relations at the University of British Columbia, the University of Toronto, and Harvard University; (2) helped provide speakers from the United States for various conferences and conventions in Canada and from Canada for groups in the United States; (3) sponsored and helped distribute pertinent articles in various journals on both sides of the border; (4) secured the cooperation of selected school systems in developing teaching materials about the neighbor country; and (5) of especial importance, made a professional and scholarly analysis of the content about Can-

ada in textbooks on United States history used in United States schools, and of the content about the United States in textbooks on Canadian and British history used in Canadian schools. This textbook survey, shortly to be published, will be not only a marked aid to the producers and users of textbooks in national history in both countries, but it will be also the first example in history of the *joint* analysis of textbooks by competent groups in two independent nations.

At a meeting of the committee in Cleveland, Ohio, in October 1945 further possibilities in the areas of radio, movies, publications, and professional cooperation at school and adult levels were explored. A program of work covering a three-year period was outlined, and the committee pledged itself to the development of the program with all the resources it could secure.

It is common knowledge that citizens of the United States know much less about Canada than is known about the United States by Canadians. It has seemed desirable, therefore, to promote more active concern about Canada in the educational institutions of the United States. Some of the suggestions for doing this which have been brought to the attention of selected American universities are:

1. To provide in summer sessions for one or more lectures on Canadian history, geography, government, or issues involving Canada-United States relationships.
2. To provide courses for teachers especially relating to Canadian history, government, and geography.
3. To encourage the discussion of Canada-United States relationships in summer workshops, institutes, and similar instructional programs.
4. To employ one or more summer staff members from Canadian universities.

The committee has found that in recent years some American universities have carried on cooperative undertakings with Canadian universities. These include the cooperation between the University of Washington and the University of British Columbia, the University of Minnesota and the University of Manitoba, as well as last summer's cooperation be-

tween the University of Michigan and the University of Toronto. It is hoped that more such cooperative relationships will be established. It has been suggested that it would be highly desirable to send announcements of summer sessions to selected school systems in Canada, especially those in neighborhood Canadian provinces.

EDUCATION IN THE ARABIC-SPEAKING COUNTRIES OF THE NEAR EAST

A new enterprise which the Council has undertaken through a contract with the State Department is a study of education in the Arabic-speaking countries of the Near East. In this little-known but increasingly important part of the world there are movements under way which have great implications for world peace. Thus, it is extremely desirable that we understand the civilization of these countries as expressed through their respective educational systems. The Council is, therefore, glad to add this project to its expanding program in the field of international education.

The Commission to study education in the Arabic-speaking countries of the Near East includes Matta Akrawi, dean of the Higher Teachers College, Baghdad; Eman Abdal Meguid, teacher of English, Kledivish Secondary School, Cairo; and Roderic D. Matthews, associate professor of education, University of Pennsylvania, director. The Commission is completing its field work, having spent two months visiting schools in Iraq, three months in Egypt, and two months in Palestine and Transjordan. Syria and Lebanon will be visited during April and May 1946. The report on the survey will be written in Lebanon during the summer. The schedule of visiting planned in the summer of 1945 has been followed, with minor changes, in spite of student strikes and political tension. The Commission has been cordially received in all the countries by those concerned with education, and every effort has been made to give opportunities and facilities to assist it in its work. Collaborators from Egypt, Iraq, and Palestine have made valuable contributions to the background studies in these countries.

INTER-AMERICAN SCHOOLS SERVICE AND COMMITTEE ON
FINANCIAL AID

One of the most interesting of the Council's activities in the international educational field is the Inter-American Schools Service, E. D. Grizzell, chairman, which is the result of work begun in 1943 under contract with the Office of Inter-American Affairs for the strengthening of American schools in Latin America. Some of these schools were founded by religious organizations, others by commercial firms, and others, particularly more recently, by cooperative community groups. Some have long and important histories.

Since 1944 our contract for this work has been with the Department of State. In that same year the Council was asked to assume additional responsibility for administering grants-in-aid for temporary financial assistance to some of these schools while they were building up to the point of self-support. A committee was organized then which was known as the Committee on Financial Aid to Schools in Latin America, Henry Grattan Doyle, chairman.

During the past year the Council's Advisory Committee on the Inter-American Schools Service and its Committee on Financial Aid have been reorganized to make the latter a subcommittee of the former. This reorganization took place at a joint meeting of the two committees on November 2, 1945.

Our grant for the administration of this combined program in the present year is \$120,000, which is being used as follows:

Maintenance of the Inter-American Schools Service.....	\$24,000
Professional materials and supplies for American schools....	10,000
Grants-in-aid to American-sponsored schools.....	83,000
General administration, accounting, and auditing.....	3,000
<hr/>	
Total	\$120,000

During the past year grants-in-aid ranging from \$350 to \$15,000 were made to eight schools in seven countries. Aid is being given at present to thirteen schools. In recent months the following new American schools have been organized:

The American School of Tegucigalpa, Honduras
The American School of San Salvador, El Salvador
The American Country Day School, Guatemala City, Guatemala
The Lincoln School, San Jose, Costa Rica
The American School, Lima, Peru

In each case the school board will include local citizens of the country concerned, and the staff will be composed of both Americans and nationals with the latter, in most cases, in the majority. Enrollments often include children of as many as twenty nationalities.

The office continues its informational, advisory, recruiting, and purchasing services for some two hundred seventy institutions with enrollments amounting to 50,000 children and young people. School directors are turning more and more to the Service for assistance in a variety of problems, and hardly a day goes by without bringing some letter of appreciation.

The file of candidates for teaching positions in these schools now numbers 429, and about a thousand additional inquiries are on file. Fifty-eight teachers have been placed and assisted with their travel arrangements. The single month of January brought 157 inquiries from American teachers regarding such placement.

The record of supplies bought for the schools, many of them in the form of single small purchases, shows a total of \$4,000 spent in the latter half of 1945. The largest single items purchased were encyclopedias. A much-appreciated gift for many schools was a packet of selected Christmas art, music, story, and dramatic materials, which was widely distributed in early November. The office has attempted recently to get Pan American Day materials to all the schools in time for use in public programs this year. From time to time other packets are prepared on themes of general practical and cultural interest.

The State Department budget for 1946-47 provides for a grant of \$193,000 to the Council for the continuation of this

program. If this budget is approved it is our hope that we may continue to merit the confidence of the Department, which was expressed to us last year in the following statement from the Assistant Secretary of State:

The Department appreciates the competent use of the grants-in-aid to the Council during the past two years and is looking forward to a satisfactory relationship during the present fiscal year.

With improved facilities for travel and shipping and increased contacts with more mobile teachers and administrators from abroad, we trust that this program will become ever more effective as a bond of understanding between communities and peoples.

EDUCATION IN INTERGROUP RELATIONS

With the financial assistance of the National Conference of Christians and Jews, the American Council on Education is sponsoring three projects in the field of intergroup relations. Understanding and harmony on the part of students in the schools and colleges should aid in the establishment of better relationships between different groups in their adult lives. We hope that through activities in the schools it may be possible to eliminate many of the tensions and misunderstandings between groups and thereby contribute toward the solution of some of the problems which are obstacles to true democratic living.

In addition to the three projects described hereafter, the Council is acting as the fiscal agent for an appropriation of \$6,600 made by the National Conference of Christians and Jews for the use of the Committee on Intercultural Relations of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools

The project on Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools was started in January 1945 in four public school systems: Milwaukee, Cleveland, Pittsburgh, and South Bend. When additional financial support to the extent of \$50,000

per year for two years was made available in September 1945, the following school systems were added: Denver, Hartford, Los Angeles County, Minneapolis, Newark, Oakland, Portland, Providence, Riverside County (California), St. Louis, San Francisco, Shorewood (Wisconsin), and Wilmington.

An additional grant of \$6,000 from the Chicago Round Table of the National Conference of Christians and Jews has made it possible to start work in evaluation. Since the funds from the grant can be used only in Illinois, the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago was chosen as a center for developments in evaluation. This school is a part of the project as far as service for the general program is concerned.

Because it seemed important to explore effective programs under varying conditions, the participating school systems were selected in the main by the following criteria:

1. They should be located in communities with a heterogeneous racial, religious, or ethnic population which present a variety of difficulties in democratic human relations. It was decided to include one system which represented a predominantly Anglo-American population in the upper economic strata, and Shorewood, Wisconsin, was selected for this purpose.

2. The schools should be staffed with competent and interested teachers.

3. The administrators should be willing to develop programs in this field and be capable of exerting adequate leadership.

The Council set up a committee to formulate policies and supervise the project. This committee is composed in part of experts in various fields and in part of representatives of the cooperating school systems. Charles H. Lake is chairman.

The staff, consisting of Miss Hilda Taba, director, and several assistants, has been assembled to provide over-all supervision in each school system and special technical assistance in specific areas. The coordinators supervise over-all programs in a series of systems. Specialists work in any school system.

Education for human relations is still a new field. There have been sporadic efforts by enthusiastic and forward-looking teachers. As yet, however, few of the working techniques and approaches to intergroup education have been systematically tested. Hence there is much to discover and to correct. Many questionable assumptions are made about the ways in which human behavior can be changed. There are gaps in applying available sound psychological knowledge. There is a lack of clarity about the need for relating intellectual knowledge to emotional sensitization. With these difficulties in mind the aims of the study have been developed as the following:

1. To expand the tool chest of educational techniques.
2. To devise educational methods and to test them out in a variety of situations.
3. To develop instructional materials and to explore better ways of using available materials.
4. To train teachers and to develop certain generalizations about efficient ways of changing teachers.
5. To explore methods of organized attack and administrative problems concomitant to introducing education in human relations into the common school curriculum.
6. To explore the ways in which educational programs in schools and community programs can cooperate.
7. To develop evaluation techniques by which to appraise the efficiency of procedures and materials.

The project is a cooperative one. Certainly the Council has no preconceived plan in mind, other than that involved in recognizing the desirability of good group relations as an objective of education. Each school is free to develop its own plan according to recognized needs, problems, and available talent. The staff services are available for inspirational or technical help. During the past year these included the following: speaking to gatherings of teachers and community leaders, conducting committee meetings, assisting at work sessions with teachers, helping individual teachers with plans, procedures, and resources, initiating teachers into techniques

of studying children and communities, helping map out school-community relations.

Any materials developed in participating schools or by the staff are shared by everyone. When this project comes to an end, a report will be published describing the techniques and materials which will be useful to education generally. Each of the cooperating school systems is expected to contribute to that report.

A local organization to supervise the local program has been set up by all of the participating school systems. Each system has appointed a coordinator, usually an assistant superintendent or the director of curriculum. In many school systems an administrative committee on intergroup education helps determine the policy. In several systems each participating school has a separate school committee or a school representative guiding the program.

In each school system the following types of educational objectives control our efforts:

1. To develop in students the kinds of knowledge and concepts necessary for intelligent understanding of human relations and group relations.
2. To change attitudes and sensitivities in a direction which is congenial to democratic human relations in school and in adult society.
3. To correct techniques of thinking which now handicap sound thinking on human relations and to develop techniques necessary for objectivity and maturity in human relations.
4. To foster skills in democratic group living.

To implement these objectives, work is going on in four different areas:

1. Curriculum revision—studies of present programs and development of new ones.
2. School life and activities—studies and plans for group life in school.
3. Human development and guidance—studies of children and appropriate guidance program.

4. Community relations—studies of community dynamics, planning community action and community cooperation.

Naturally the progress in curriculum revision in the several cooperative schools is in different stages. Surveys and critical examination of existing practices have been made in most school systems. In several school systems, school-wide or city-wide committees are planning instructional outlines. For example, in South Bend the elementary social studies program is under revision. In Minneapolis, South Bend, and Denver, the course in community civics in the ninth grade is being realigned to permit more emphasis on how people live together in communities. Programs on American culture—emphasizing culture groups in America, the values they hold and their outlook, and combining American history and literature—are projected in four cities. Courses in biology and general science are being strengthened by incorporating information and concepts pertaining to heredity, genetics, and race. A new reading program from first grade through high school is emerging in most schools. It involves selection of books on the basis of what they contribute to various problems of human relations. Discussion and creative writing is being planned to enhance sensitivity to human behavior and human relations. The staff has helped in locating appropriate fiction and short stories and by annotating these materials. Discussion outlines—guides for inducing personal reactions to books—are being prepared.

In addition to these city-wide or school-wide projects, many individual teachers conduct experimental projects in their respective classrooms. These are so-called "spot experiments" conducted by the most interested and capable people, and they will constitute the testing ground for pioneer work to be adopted by other teachers later.

In curriculum work the staff has been guided by the following principles: Intergroup education is to be introduced into the on-going curriculum program and not "tacked on" in the form of specific courses or units. Not only is teacher initiative sought but also participation in curriculum planning that

does not depend on instructional materials developed by the staff.

Integration of various fields now separated is essential to the curriculum in human relations. Cooperative projects by several departments are encouraged.

School is the fundamental laboratory for learning to live and work together. Yet schools tend to re-enforce the segregation practiced in adult society. Students most in need of training in democratic living are excluded from activities providing such training. Staff workers, therefore, put much emphasis on analysis and replanning of school life and activities in terms of their effect on democratic human relations.

In this area the following efforts are under way:

1. Studies of friendship and leadership patterns, with an intensive analysis of causes of rejection, isolation, and domination. In many schools sociometric questions have been introduced. Others are analyzing participation in clubs and other activities to determine how broadly participation opportunities are available and to what extent cultural differences affect them.

2. Evaluation of existing school groups and activities and their effect on group relations. Clubs, sororities, student councils, committees, and other group activities are under scrutiny from the standpoint of traditions which govern them, methods of admission, their appropriateness to the needs of the group, and their effects on isolation, participation, and leadership training.

3. Planning constructive programs for effective human relations. In several cities either the faculties or students, or both, are projecting new programs for special needs in group living. In three cities youth councils have been established to help plan the social life of the school. In many places student government is being reconstructed to make it a more effective force in group life. Intergroup relations have become a focus of attention for school papers in two cities. Interschool exchanges of programs, panels, and other activities are in progress in several places.

It has become increasingly clear that a program in school can have only a limited effect without a parallel program in the community. Information about the community, about its group life, tensions and problems, the prevailing attitudes, the resources, the leaders, is basic to any sound curriculum and in programs in human relations. In most cities some steps have been taken towards learning more about the community. They have gathered population statistics, recorded and analyzed incidents, compiled information on community resources and leaders. Several cities have used informants from minority groups in their planning meetings.

Systematic surveys of the status of intergroup relations are under way in Oakland, Minneapolis, Pittsburgh, Portland, and South Bend. Usually these surveys are financed by community groups, but teachers and even older students participate in gathering data.

Many of the problems of group relations in a community require an over-all attack by everyone concerned. In some communities this has meant cultivating a rapport among already existing over-all organizations such as councils for civic unity, community councils, councils of social agencies, and the schools. In other cases over-all groups had to be created either on a city-wide or a neighborhood basis. It is the project's aim to stimulate community action, especially in extending employment opportunities and recreational facilities and in bettering housing conditions. In one city plans are afoot for two community-centered schools.

Cooperative work is going on also with such organizations as the PTA, the settlement houses, and especially the agencies representing the minority groups. An example of such work is the cooperative planning by the Urban League and guidance counselors in Minneapolis for vocational guidance and placement of Negro students.

This project is an in-service teacher education enterprise. Indeed, in-service training is going on all the time—in planning meetings, in conferences about the projects, through incidental consultant service. Three types of intensive in-serv-

ice programs have been undertaken. In-service training courses were held in cooperation with the local university in each of two cities, South Bend and Hartford. The project staff helped plan the courses and contributed part of the lectures. In several cities staff members participated in community-wide institutes, lasting from one day to a week.

In the summer of 1945 the project sponsored a workshop at the University of Chicago for its cooperating schools. Thirty teachers from the four school systems attended. Three workshops are planned for the summer of 1946: at the University of Chicago, Syracuse University, and Mills College. About one hundred fifty people are expected to attend these workshops. In addition to these central project workshops, local workshops in intergroup education are being held in Portland, Denver, Minneapolis, and Cleveland.

The response to this project in the cooperating school systems among both administrators and teachers has been good.

Gradually the scope of the program is enlarging. Schools are realizing the need of continuity from first grade through the twelfth grade and the importance of permeating all areas of school activity.

While in any specific situation the program for the time being may be limited to some single emphasis—curriculum, activities, guidance, or community relations—the vision is emerging that the program eventually must encompass all of these.

The diversity in community situations in instructional patterns and in personal relations and reactions of individuals has made it necessary to proceed cautiously.

Training of local leadership has been a big task, and it still represents a problem. Workshops have been highly useful in developing local leadership and technical competence for the many new tasks faced in this program.

A fair beginning has been made in translating research data and concepts into school practices and in modifying techniques used for specialized research so that they can be useful for teachers.

The Council believes that this program has great possibilities, not only in enhancing the teaching of intergroup relations, but also in improving general education.

The College Study in Intergroup Relations

The College Study in Intergroup Relations was launched on an exploratory basis in February 1945, having been made possible by a grant of \$14,000 from the National Conference of Christians and Jews. This grant was made to the American Council on Education, which in turn requested the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education to supervise the study.

In February 1946 the Council on Cooperation asked that the study be continued and expanded, and it received from the National Conference a budget of \$75,000, at the rate of \$25,000 per year for a three-year period.

Since the above date such assistance as has been needed has been provided to the eight original colleges and universities in continuing projects under way. At the same time, the process of selecting seven or more new applicant teacher-education institutions is well started. In all, a sample of fifteen or so colleges and universities are wanted for the 1946 program.

The central aim of the College Study in 1945 was to focus teacher preparation on the broad field of intergroup relations. It was to determine, via intensive study in a group of cooperating institutions and in relation to other educational objectives, the nature, uses, and worth in teacher education of experiences, activities, projects, etc., in group relations. While freedom of choice was left to each participating college, stress was placed on current social problems involving race, creed, immigrant cultures, and socio-economic class levels. The aim was to produce prospective teachers who would be informed about these critical issues, fair-minded in dealing with them, skilled in reducing intergroup tensions both in and outside the school—teachers who would wish to help children develop similar traits and would know how to do so. Our plan is to continue these same emphases for 1946.

When the College Study was launched, it was felt that no

more than four to six institutions could be included. No effort was made to secure wide publicity. Plans were presented at the 1945 annual meeting of the Council on Cooperation. Almost immediately, communications were received from 132 heads of colleges and universities in all parts of the nation. Of these inquiries, 85 were judged to be bona fide applications, and 36 of these institutions were visited. In May 1945 the interim committee of the Council on Cooperation authorized the inclusion of nine teacher-education institutions for the exploratory year. Subsequently, two of these had to withdraw from the project and one college was added, making a total of eight institutions with which we worked during the year:

Marshall College
State Teachers College, Milwaukee
New Jersey State College
New York State College for Teachers, Albany
Ohio State University
University of Pittsburgh
Wayne University
West Virginia State College

The intention in selection was to secure, so far as limited numbers permitted, representative samples of teacher education. In 1946 it is hoped to improve the sample in three ways: by reaching into the deep South and far West, by obtaining the participation of at least one Catholic institution, and by including a rather small college drawing its students from isolated rural areas.

In the eight colleges thirty-five separate project groups were formed. These involved, in all, in responsible leader positions 429 college staff members, public school officials, student teachers, social agency heads, church representatives, and others. While there is as yet no final figure on the number of times these working groups met, that number will exceed one thousand. Over half the projects and activities involved the curriculum, that is, all-college surveys, experimental courses or units of study, uses of audio-visual aids, etc. Next in number were projects providing students with experiences in com-

munity study, social agency services, group observation, and individual case study. Other projects related to campus groupings, extra-curricular activities, and student contacts.

While these small working groups, each with a staff representative in a local all-college coordinating committee, were the heart of the study, other activities were on a broader scale. On four occasions the project staff shared with colleges in conducting statewide conferences on intergroup problems, for example, the one at Albany having audiences for two public addresses of more than 5,000. One- to three-day workshops at each of the eight colleges were fairly common, with participation ranging from 50 to 150 individuals. Two one-week workshops were held for college committee chairmen, one at Pittsburgh, the other at Cleveland. In working with local committee chairmen, the director has visited 120 public schools, some from three to five times. In addition to routine consultant service on regular visits to each college, more than a hundred addresses have been made to college, school, and community meetings.

To these work efforts there should be added a considerable body of writing. This includes monthly issues of the *College Study Bulletin*, now going to over 700 college administrators, faculty members, public school officials, state departments of education personnel, church and social agency workers, heads of intercultural organizations, state and regional directors of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. The staff has also issued twenty-two study forms, for example, community-survey and group-observation blanks, six articles have been published, and about the same number accepted for publication. Work is proceeding on a book-length final report in which each college will tell its own story.

One measure of the effectiveness of any program of this sort is the amount and kind of participation that it evokes. As seen in statistics already cited, the College Study has met a most responsive reaction. This is especially notable in view of the newness of social education, the still too-prevalent unconcern for realistic life-centered learning, and the special

hazards connected with race, creed, national cultures, and class-level differences.

College administrators have provided vigorous support for the study. They have stimulated staff members and students to participate, decreased on occasion the teaching duties of general committee chairmen, provided at times paid clerical assistance, purchased test forms and materials, enlarged library collections, arranged mealtime meetings at college expense, matched College Study funds in providing consultants and in publication ventures. The study has also enlisted the enthusiastic support of large numbers of faculty members, students, school officials, and community representatives.

What has been learned that, at the end of this exploratory year, is worth reporting? College committee chairmen spent some hours on this problem at their final workshop in Cleveland. Leaving detailed evidence for other publication, main-line learnings are indicated below:

1. Attitudes and behaviors of prospective teachers involving race, creed, and such factors, can be changed by well-planned, short-term efforts in the direction of more democratic practices. Changes as a rule, while small, appear to be significant. One may find insight and leadership in intergroup education in any college-teaching area or subject-matter field.

2. An indirect approach, with emphasis on some broad inclusive concept such as social participation, especially when joined with the impact of student on student as in field experience, is more effective than a direct approach in bettering intergroup relations.

3. A basic social orientation, a continuing stress on human problems, intergroup relations, a democratic social order, all should pervade an entire teacher-education program.

4. Much that needs to be taught prospective teachers cannot be taught, or taught well, inside college classrooms. It must be learned in life situations in public schools, in community group-work experiences, in what John Dewey would call "suffering and undergoing."

5. Current approaches to intergroup education in public

schools are of two sorts—top down and bottom up. Each needs to be studied under fairly exact experimental conditions to determine their respective values. Whether the approach is one way or the other, the two need to be coordinated so that each is responsive to the other.

6. Where prospective teachers are most in need of help is probably not in respect to facts, ideas, and attitudes, as important as these are. Where they appear least able to work well is in group-management techniques, the control processes by which people achieve united action.

7. Involvement of a total college in so far as this is possible, not in a forced sense but by its own deepening concern, is notably more effective than any segmental program, especially where campus efforts are reinforced by vigorous local and state-action programs.

8. Bettering intergroup relations is a two-way process in the sense that it is concerned with supersensitive minority-group members, as well as with majority-group prejudices, and should always, in fairness to democratic principles, be presented in this light.

For the year February 1946 to February 1947, it is planned to increase the institutions in this study to at least fifteen. All 1945 colleges are now re-applicants, either for full- or part-time service. To these will be added others from the applications now coming in. Deficiencies in the 1945 sample, as already stated, will be corrected by selecting colleges from the far South and as far west as Denver. It will be possible to accept one or two California colleges if a kind of regional office, or at least a part-time consultant, can be secured at perhaps the University of Denver or Colorado State College at Greeley, both of which are strong applicant schools. Similarly, a more or less regular staff member to serve as a regional consultant is envisioned in the East, say at New York or Boston, and in the South, perhaps at Atlanta. All of this, however, is speculative, depending on decision by the interim committee.

The headquarters of this project have been moved to

Wayne University, Detroit, where the director, Lloyd Allen Cook, is engaged in part-time teaching. The University has welcomed the College Study on the Wayne campus and has provided ample office space, furnishings, and machine equipment.

One venture for the coming summer is a six-week workshop, with small grants-in-aid to participants from our 1946 colleges. By means of this workshop, we hope to orient the new colleges and, among other things, to remedy our chief technical limitation last year—the lack of adequate study forms and evaluative devices.

Through this project a beginning has been made in what will likely prove an ever more-promising field in teacher education—the broad area of intergroup relations in current school and community living. While our eight colleges claim no more than having explored the problem, the results strongly indicate that teachers can do better and more than is usually done.

One could not conclude a report of this character without a brief word of genuine appreciation to college heads, general committee chairmen, and other group workers in the eight colleges making the study. To Herbert L. Seamans, director of the Commission on Educational Organizations, National Conference of Christians and Jews, we are indebted for a continuing interest in all phases of the work. Our greatest debt, however, is to the interim committee of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, Karl W. Bigelow, chairman.

Teaching Materials on Intergroup Relations

As set forth in the report for 1945, the Council's Committee on Teaching Materials on Intergroup Relations, James L. Hanley, chairman, has been engaged in the interesting project of studying the treatment of various groups in our population in textbooks and school curriculums. The project has been under the general direction of Howard E. Wilson of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

The research work and the initial drafts of the several

chapters in the report were completed by a competent staff of workers during the summer of 1945. Since that time numerous conferences, particularly with the leaders of religious groups, have been held in order to secure reactions to the early drafts of the several chapters.

On September 1, 1945, Leon B. Wolcott accepted the responsibility of editing the entire manuscript, doing the necessary research for materials and rewriting certain portions.

Mr. Wilson, Herbert L. Seamans, and Mr. Wolcott met in Washington D. C., on January 24 and 25, 1946, with the members of the committee in general charge of the study to discuss the complete text of the report. All of the chapters of the study were critically reviewed and specific suggestions were made for revision. The months of February, March, and April 1946 were spent in a complete rewriting of the entire manuscript in the light of the committee's criticisms, with further research on points inadequately dealt with, and consultation with persons having special competence in the separate subject-matter or problem areas discussed. It is planned to submit a completely revised copy of the entire text to the committee by June 1, 1946.

The significance of this study may be appraised as follows:

1. The scope or coverage of the study is exceptional. Materials from elementary, secondary, and college levels were examined. Most of the subject-matter areas on the level of the secondary school are included.

2. The point of view is not crusading. The account is primarily a factual one covering those materials bearing on the subject of intergroup relations to be found in textbooks and courses of study and stating their deficiencies from the point of view of what is now generally accepted as desirable in the area of education for responsible American citizenship.

3. The factual materials do not appear *in vacuo*. They are set in a background of social thinking which emphasizes the major tenets of the democratic philosophy toward which we assume American education to be directed. Further, at every possible point the factual analysis is related to those tech-

niques of thinking about individual and group behavior which condition attitudes and behavior.

4. The analysis does not stop short with mere criticism. The study is replete with recommendations and suggestions, both general and highly specific, for curriculum revision, changes in the textbooks themselves, and changes in educational practices.

5. The study has wide appeal, and its use may be practicable for a wide variety of persons. Among its readers may well be found the authors, editors, and publishers of textbooks, school administrators, teachers, and students in teacher-training institutions, school board members, curriculum directors, specialists in intercultural education, librarians, classroom teachers, and those parents and lay persons who are seriously interested in making public education serve most effectively the need for achieving social unity in a period when group tensions are causing concern to the thoughtful.

I am convinced that when this report comes from the press it will be one of the most important of the growing list of studies which the Council has undertaken in the field of teaching materials and that it will have a profound influence on the writing of textbooks and other teaching materials over the long future. If so, the study will help immensely to make our schools even more worthy exponents and examples of education for democratic living.

TEACHER EDUCATION

The Committee on Teacher Education was set up in 1944 with the primary function of implementing the work of the Commission on Teacher Education and was provided with a two-year operating budget of \$26,000, covering the period from September 1, 1944, to August 31, 1946. The activities of the committee to April 1, 1945, have been described in a previous report; the present description will cover the period from that date to April 1, 1946.

Executive offices for the committee were established in quar-

ters contributed by Teachers College, Columbia University, on April 1, 1945, with L. D. Haskew of Emory University serving full time as executive secretary. The committee has sought to discharge its implementation functions in these ways:

1. Translating the findings of the Commission on Teacher Education having specific plans for the improvement of teacher education by colleges, groups of colleges and schools, committees of state and national organizations, state departments of education, and various professional organizations.

2. Stimulating new activities in teacher education on the part of groups and organizations which had not heretofore evidenced a great deal of concern in the field.

3. Assisting various leaders in working out plans for continuous coordinating, national leadership in teacher education through further development of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

4. Promoting the wide distribution and use of the publications of the Commission on Teacher Education.

5. Providing a channel for the exchange of experience in teacher education and for the development of camaraderie and a feeling of unity among persons engaged in all aspects of teacher education.

The accomplishment of the foregoing objectives has involved:

- a. Furnishing consultative services to various groups, or assisting them in securing the services desired.
- b. A large amount of visitation by the executive secretary, during which he conferred with committees, studied programs in operation, consulted with individuals, addressed groups, and so on.
- c. Suggesting or arranging participation in the programs of meetings of various professional organizations.
- d. Preparing articles excerpted from Commission publications for educational periodicals.

- e. Preparing, or stimulating the preparation of, articles dealing with emphases in the Commission's work for various educational periodicals; distributing reprints of some of these articles.
- f. Preparing and distributing a large amount of advertising material to promote the sale and use of Commission publications. Carrying on other promotional activities.
- g. Issuing a *Newsletter* at bimonthly intervals.
- h. Carrying on an extensive correspondence concerning a wide variety of interests in teacher education.
- i. Cultivating by personal contact the interest of national organizations in teacher education.

The members of the committee have engaged in numerous consultative activities, of which the following are typical:

Charles E. Prall served as a consultant in a two-week, state-wide conference on teacher education in California which eventuated in the formation of a state council on teacher education and a concerned plan for state action.

Earl W. Armstrong acted as a consultant in a school for workshop leaders in Georgia.

Maurice Troyer worked in a state planning session in connection with the West Virginia program.

David Trout, Karl Bigelow, and the executive secretary have served as consultants in the development of a cooperative curriculum-study program among the teachers colleges of Connecticut. This study is patterned closely after the Commission's way of working and seems to have got off to an excellent start.

Mr. Bigelow met with the Council of Presidents of Teachers Colleges in Massachusetts and with several similar groups.

Mr. Prall, Mr. Bigelow, and the executive secretary served as consultants in a conference on statewide collaboration in teacher education sponsored by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

Mr. Haskew, the executive secretary, has served as consultant to:

A wide variety of summer workshop groups at the University of Minnesota; Teachers College, Columbia University; Pennsylvania State College; the University of Chicago; the University of Kentucky; and the Southern States Work Conference

The Arkansas State Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification

The Radford College Curriculum Committee; the University of Georgia Curriculum Committee; the University of Michigan Curriculum Committee; and several other college planning groups

The Louisiana State Committee on Teacher Education

The Workshop Committee of the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of Quebec

The first meeting of a projected state council on teacher education for Ohio

The Bureau for Intercultural Education; the National Conference of Christians and Jews; the East and West Association; Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools; the College Study in Intergroup Relations; and the North Central Association Preparation of Teachers Committee

In-service education planning groups in Lansing, New York City, Houston

At the invitation of the state department of education, the executive secretary spent a week in Michigan. After meeting with various persons on the staff of the state department, he spent one day each in five colleges. He met with a wide variety of committees, observed many different types of activities, talked with many individuals. Primary objective was to discover things worth taking to others; judged by this criterion alone the visit was highly profitable.

A similar visit has been made to Wisconsin. Shorter visits have taken the executive secretary to Ohio State University, Emory University, Syracuse University, and a few other places. The requests for visits have increased steadily and have now gone far beyond the time available for this type of activity.

At their 1946 meetings, the Association of American Colleges and the American Association of Teachers Colleges, in a joint meeting with the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, heard addresses by Dr. Bigelow based on the final report of the Commission. The American Association of School Administrators had discussions of teacher selection and recruitment at each of its four regional meetings. Several other regional and state groups were influenced to give attention to the work of the Commission by suggestions of this committee—the Schoolmen's Week at the University of Pennsylvania is a typical example.

The committee has worked with the National Council of Chief State School Officers along two very profitable lines. The first of these was to lend assistance and consultation to the committee which was set up to work out ways and means for establishing and maintaining a permanent central research and study body for the NCCSSO. It was felt that this step would mark a great forward stride, in that it would give potency to an organization which represents one of the key forces in American education. As a result of a variety of approaches it seems that the achievement of this objective is assured.

At the suggestion of our committee, the Study Commission of the NCCSSO set up a Committee on Teacher Education to recommend policies to the Chief State School Officers. The executive secretary gave a large amount of time to working with this group; support from Committee on Teacher Education funds made it possible for a week's work session to be held with two consultants in attendance. The report of the group was given a significant amount of attention by the Chief State School Officers, and plans were laid to hold a work conference for state directors of teacher education and certification in the near future.

The very closest cooperation has existed between the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the Committee on Teacher Education. The committee helped plan the program for the AATC's annual meeting and has worked with several

subcommittees of that organization. Dr. Bigelow and Dr. Haskew are serving on the committee engaged in planning the Third School for Executives in which considerable attention will be devoted to the work of the Commission on Teacher Education.

Special attention has been given to the problems of the development of permanent national leadership in teacher education. At its meeting in October 1945 the Committee on Teacher Education passed a resolution which directed attention to the need for continuing an active national leadership in teacher education, and requested the American Council on Education to give every possible impetus to the working-out of plans to bring this about. The strong opinion was expressed that the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education offered the best nucleus for the development of the leadership agency which was needed. Following this meeting the services of the executive secretary of the Committee on Teacher Education were made available to the Council on Cooperation to assist in executing certain projects, thereby serving to demonstrate the potentialities inherent in full-time executive services for the CCTE. The committee has had intimate contact with the various developments which seem to augur a bright future for the CCTE.

Publications

Excerpts from Commission publications have been placed in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, *Journal of Higher Education*, *School Review*, *School and Society*, *Understanding the Child*, *Childhood Education*, *California Journal of Elementary Education*, *Phi Delta Kappan*, *Educational Leadership*, *Education Digest*, *Teachers College Record*, *Social Education*, and eighteen journals of state education associations.

Other articles dealing with various aspects of the Commission's work have appeared in *Elementary School Journal*, *Teachers College Record*, *School and Society*, *School Executive*, *Childhood Education*, *Educational Leadership*, *Educa-*

tional Administration and Supervision, *Education Digest*, and at least twelve state education association journals.

Reprints of several of these latter articles have been distributed. The most impressive demand has come for reprints of an article on in-service education which appeared in *School Executive*, more than five thousand copies having been distributed.

Since April 1, 1945, three additional reports in the final report series of the Commission on Teacher Education have come from the press. They are *Helping Teachers Understand Children* by the Staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel, *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs* by Ernest V. Hollis, and *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education* by Charles E. Prall. The eighth and final volume, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, by the Commission, is in press and scheduled for delivery in June 1946.

In many ways, each of the types of activity already named have constituted promotional work in behalf of the Commission publications. In addition, a large volume of direct advertising has been prepared by the executive secretary, and much intensive cultivation has been done. An extra attempt has been made to secure wide notice of the publications in the educational press, and the response has been gratifying.

Five issues of the *Newsletter* have been distributed. The requests to be placed on the mailing list have been surprisingly large in number and continue to come in. The circulation of the April 1946 issue is 4,000, made up entirely of requests.

Communication has been fostered also by a series of inquiries which have been sent out under the heading "Do You Know Something?" Not only has the degree of response been gratifying but also many valuable leads have been uncovered.

Plans for the Future

An examination of the list of personal-contact activities of the committee reveals the fact that very few of these activities

have centered west of the Mississippi River. To remedy that omission, the executive secretary will spend the months of April and May in an inclusive visitation itinerary which will take him into the states of Nebraska, Colorado, Utah, California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Wyoming.

The services of the executive secretary are in considerable demand for various enterprises during the summer of 1946. The major undertakings will be the School for Executives of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and advance planning for a nationwide clinic in teacher education, sponsored by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, to be held in November in Georgia.

The Committee on Teacher Education has recommended to the American Council on Education that it be discontinued on August 31, 1946, as originally contemplated. The objectives which it has been serving will thereafter be assumed by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

COUNCIL ON COOPERATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The year 1945-46 was marked by important developments for the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. Membership, activities, and resources increased.

During the year two more national educational organizations—the Association of American Colleges and the National Council of Chief State School Officers—joined the Council on Cooperation, bringing the total number of members to seventeen.² Thus were added voices representing the nation's col-

² Prior members were: the American Association of School Administrators, the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the Association for Childhood Education, the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association, the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, the Eastern States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers, the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching, the National Association of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts, the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association, the National League of Teachers Associations, the National Society of College Teachers of Education, the Teachers College Personnel Association.

leges of liberal arts and state superintendents of public instruction, both significantly interested in teacher education.

While the American Council on Education had at various times endeavored to encourage the Council on Cooperation, it was not until February 1946 that the Executive Committee passed the following motion:

That the American Council on Education recognize and support as effectively as possible the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education for the consideration of the problems of teacher education and as an agency for federating the activities of various organizations interested in the field of teacher education.

That the American Council, in consultation with the Council on Cooperation, endeavor to set up as soon as possible an office for the Council on Cooperation, with a part-time or full-time secretary, the expenses of which may be met out of receipts from the sale of the publications of the Commission on Teachers Education and such other funds as the Council finds that it is possible to set aside for this purpose.

It will thus be seen that with the completion of the work of the Committee on Teacher Education on August 31, 1946, the American Council will concentrate its interests in the field of teacher education in the Council on Cooperation. As the co-operative enterprise of a very considerable number of educational associations, the Council on Cooperation is in a favorable position to make very significant contributions to the field of teacher education, now faced with many difficult problems, including the supplying of an adequate number of prepared teachers for the schools.

In line with the policy adopted by the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education, the project relating to the preparation of teachers for junior colleges and technical institutes, described in last year's annual report, has been turned over to the Council on Cooperation, which has been developing plans to go forward with that worthy enterprise. I trust that we may be able to make substantial progress in the near future.

The Council's most considerable activity last year was its College Study in Intergroup Relations. This study, financed

by a special grant from the National Conference of Christians and Jews, is designed to facilitate improvements in teacher preparation with respect to problems of race, creed, national origins, and social class. Eight colleges participated, during the past year, and direction of the study was provided by Lloyd Allen Cook. The project proved so successful that the National Conference has now made possible its continuance on an enlarged scale for three additional years. A report of experience to date is being prepared and will be published in book form by the American Council. Additional information about this college study is given on pages 323-28.

Because of the mounting crisis in the supply of adequately trained teachers in the elementary and secondary schools, Karl W. Bigelow, chairman of the Council on Cooperation, has prepared a statement pointing out the seriousness of the situation and calling on all agencies and interested citizens to give thorough consideration to it. The statement was presented to the meeting of the delegates of the constituent members of the American Council at their meetings in Chicago on May 2, 1946, and unanimously approved by them. The statement will be printed and widely distributed. I hope that it may do much to make people aware of the increasingly critical situation in teacher supply.

With assistance from the Committee on Teacher Education, the Council on Cooperation has carried out as planned certain other activities. In January, for example, a regional conference on state councils in teacher education was held in Michigan, five states being represented. A national clinic on problems in teacher education is being planned for November, a grant-in-aid for the purpose having been provided by the Julius Rosenwald Fund.

During the year the Council's executive committee met frequently to consider plans for the future of the organization. With the Commission on Teacher Education having dissolved, and the Committee on Teacher Education of the American Council expecting to complete its duties before the close of 1946, there was reason to think that so representative an

organization as the Council on Cooperation might properly undertake to expand its program. It was encouraged to do so by representatives of the two bodies mentioned and by other educational leaders with whom consultations were held. The situation was fully reviewed by delegates to the annual meeting of the Council on Cooperation, held in Cleveland on February 22 and 23.

What appeared to be needed were additional human and financial resources to be devoted to Council affairs. These needs have now been met. Teachers College, Columbia University, has agreed to release to the Council on Cooperation a generous proportion of the time of two staff members, to provide these persons with secretarial assistance, and to make available suitable office space and equipment. The Executive Committee of the American Council has agreed to make an ample financial contribution to the Council on Cooperation, drawing for this purpose upon the fund created by sale of the publications of the Commission on Teacher Education. Thus, support provided by the organizations that are members of the Council on Cooperation will in the future be substantially increased. The new arrangements are for three years from July 1, 1946.

At the annual meeting of the Council on Cooperation, Karl W. Bigelow (delegate at large) was re-elected chairman. Since then Dr. Bigelow has agreed to assume added leadership responsibilities under the arrangement with Teachers College already reported.

COMMITTEE ON ACCREDITING PROCEDURES

I reported at some length a year ago on the preparation of the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, a project for which George P. Tuttle, registrar at the University of Illinois, has been directly responsible. The purpose of this *Guide*, as is well recognized by those who use it, is to assist educational institutions to make a sound evaluation of the educational experiences of service personnel. During the past year analyses and evalua-

tions have been made and published of practically all of the service courses and programs of the several branches of the armed services, including the courses offered in the University Study Centers abroad. The final mailing of the descriptions and evaluations of courses has gone to all subscribers. An index to these materials has been prepared and will also go to the subscribers as a supplement.

In its completed form the *Guide* now contains approximately 1,900 loose-leaf pages describing about 2,000 courses. Around 17,000 copies of the *Guide* have been distributed to educational officers in the armed forces, and more than 7,000 copies have gone to civilian educational institutions and agencies. In connection with the report of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, I have indicated plans now under way to make copies of the *Guide* available to all accredited high schools and institutions of higher education in the United States.

The Council is deeply indebted to the University of Illinois, both for its willingness to grant leaves of absence to Mr. Tuttle and members of his staff for the purpose of preparing the *Guide* and for the physical facilities which the University made available, largely without cost. Inasmuch as the major job of preparing the materials for the *Guide* has been completed, and since the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences is in a position to assume responsibility for the voluminous correspondence that has been handled by the staff at Urbana, it will be possible to transfer to the offices of the Commission on Accreditation in Washington the continuing services which will be required, in providing information, in revising materials, and in distributing the *Guide*. Reports from schools and colleges to the staff of the Commission on Accreditation and to the Council indicate that the *Guide* has been of almost inestimable value both to the institutions concerned with the evaluation of military educational experience and to the servicemen who request credit for their educational experience. In fact, the *Guide* has been a practical means of putting into operation the policy advocated in the Council's

earlier publication *Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience*.

A second project to which reference was made in my previous report on the activities of the Committee on Accrediting Procedures is the *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*. This volume, which was edited by Professor Carter V. Good of the University of Cincinnati, while designed originally to provide specific information about colleges, universities, and professional schools in the United States for the use of educational officers in the armed forces, is in great demand by civilian educational institutions. The first two printings totaling 20,000 copies; 12,000 of which went to the armed forces and 8,000 to civilian institutions, is practically exhausted. A third printing has been arranged for, and it is hoped that additional copies will be available early in May. The Council expresses its gratitude to the University of Cincinnati for assisting in this project by releasing Dr. Good from a part of his teaching and administrative duties in the University and by providing office space for him and his staff.

Except for these two projects, the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services* and the *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*, the Committee on Accrediting Procedures has been comparatively inactive during the past year. The new chairman of the committee, Charles E. Friley, president of Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, is planning a program of activities for the coming year which will focus the attention of the committee on a number of important matters. Among them is the completion of a master schedule to be used by the various accrediting agencies. This schedule was in the process of preparation when we entered the war. Its completion was deferred because other more important matters demanded attention. Now there is a growing demand for an instrument of this type, and it is anticipated that in the immediate future the committee will give further

consideration to plans for the completion of the master schedule. The committee will also give consideration to such matters as the inconsistencies and inequities among the states in requirements that are set for various types of professional licenses and the development of multiple accrediting agencies in some professional fields.

YOUTH PROBLEMS

During the year the Committee on Youth Problems has held two meetings, one a joint session with the Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government. The major concern of the Committee on Youth Problems during this past year has been compulsory military training. The committee sponsored a comparative study of military training in the United States and several European nations. A brief summary of this study, made by George Fort Milton, was published in the January 1946 issue of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD* under the title "Make Haste Slowly on Peacetime Conscription."

The committee also sought to procure several manuscripts on the relationships of military training to various aspects of education. One of these reports, prepared by C. H. McCloy, appeared also in the January issue of the *RECORD*, entitled "Physical and Health Education for America."

The committee reaffirmed its recommendations that action on peacetime military training be delayed pending a thorough analysis of the whole issue by a commission to be appointed by the President. It now has under consideration a number of other projects, including the bringing up to date of several of the earlier studies undertaken by the American Youth Commission and certain other problems pertaining to the postwar situation.

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL SECURITY

Four questions have been the focus of the activities of the Committee on Education and Social Security, Karl de

Schweinitz, director of the study, in carrying out the program begun in June 1944, and described in my report for the year 1944-45. These questions are:

1. What knowledge underlies and is common to the administration of the three parts of the system of social security in the United States—old-age and survivors insurance, unemployment compensation, and public assistance? What does the system demand in skill of the professions represented in its administration? How can this knowledge and skill be defined in such a way as to be of use to those who are concerned about the education of careerists before and after they have entered the public service?

2. What is the significance of social security, as an emerging social institution, for education in the liberal arts? What should be included in an undergraduate curriculum serving the student who in the course of a general education would like to prepare himself for future participation as citizen or as careerist in this field of government?

3. What part should in-service training play in the development of the knowledge and skill of the personnel who are identified with the system of social security?

4. What are the implications for professional education of the administration of social insurance and public assistance, particularly as it concerns accounting, law, public administration, the social sciences, and social work?

The method of study pursued by the committee has been an analysis by its staff of the materials and operations of social security with a view to defining areas of knowledge and skill, the discussion by the members of the committee of the findings developed by the staff and the presentation of the resultant subject matter for consideration by in-service training groups and in meetings of administrators and of teachers.

The director of the committee, Karl de Schweinitz, is widely known in the field of education for social work, and the assistant director, Robert Ball, was formerly with the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board.

In addition to conducting the study described above, the committee has been engaged in developing plans for the creation of facilities through which administrators and educators can work together to study the materials of social security and related services. As a step in this direction it has undertaken an institute on social security to be offered in July to teachers in the social sciences in colleges and universities in Pennsylvania. This is a joint project of the Council and the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities, initiated by the Joint Agency-School Committee of Pennsylvania and the Pennsylvania Department of Public Assistance. During August a series of institutes will be offered by the committee at Chapel Hill, under the auspices of the Division of Public Welfare and Social Work of the University of North Carolina. One of these institutes will be addressed to teachers in graduate and undergraduate departments of social sciences and in professional schools; two institutes will be offered to principal personnel engaged in the administration of social security.

The committee regards its assignment as including the whole field of education for the public social services. It is, however, placing initial and primary emphasis upon social security—the largest program in point of personnel and of the percentage of population served. The committee looks forward to the development of a center in Washington for individual and group study by administrators and teachers interested in the public social services.

In embarking upon and carrying out this project, the Council has been influenced by a belief that the social programs represented by social security and related services are opening a new area of education. Upon the quality of teaching in this emerging field will depend to a large degree the preparation with which the citizen and the careerist will approach the determination of public policies in a phase of government which today affects most of the people of the United States, potentially everybody. Both the public social services and the institutions of learning are interested in developing educational

methods and content in this field and are prepared to make a maximum use of the studies and other activities of the committee. A report of the findings and recommendations of the committee is in preparation for publication in 1947.

GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

During the last year, the Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures was brought to a close with the completion and publication of *Unfinished Business in American Education*, under the joint authorship of John K. Norton, chairman of the Committee on Government and Educational Finance and general director of the study, and Eugene S. Lawler, coordinator of the study. A first printing of 27,500 copies of this publication was financed jointly by the National Education Association and the American Council on Education.

This document presents the salient findings of the Cooperative Study in popular form. The popular document was preceded by an edition of 680 copies of a technical report which presented detailed data and conclusions. This report was published by the Council in 1944 in a two-volume mimeographed document of 409 pages, entitled *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States*.

The Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures was made possible by a grant from the General Education Board to the Council. The investigation was sponsored by the United States Office of Education, the National Education Association, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, the Southern States Work Conference on School Administrative Problems, and the American Council on Education. An advisory committee represented the five sponsoring organizations during the three years that the study was underway. Due to the cooperation of the forty-eight state departments of education, data was obtained for all of the forty-eight states.

The successful completion of this project leaves the way open for the Committee on Government and Educational Finance to explore other areas of investigation. Two fields of

study have been suggested as worthy of the consideration of the committee during the coming year: the first would be concerned with the relation of financial support of school systems to the scope, character, and quality of education provided, and the second would involve identification and appraisal of emerging policies and procedures in the financing of higher education.

MODERN LANGUAGES

During the year just closing the Committee on Modern Languages, Robert Herndon Fife, chairman, has been engaged mainly in an effort to complete its study of English teaching in Puerto Rico. This undertaking, which was begun in 1942, has been in the hands of Professor H. T. Manuel of the University of Texas and the chairman. Delays in submission of a final report have been due in large measure to heavy wartime duties and academic burdens. The most important part of the complex task of bringing clarity into conditions surrounding the teaching of English in the island is the interpretation of the results from the mass-testing of pupils for bilingual achievement. This was undertaken in May 1943, but, owing to obstacles of a wartime character, could not be brought into raw statistical form until more than a year later. A preliminary report giving some general findings was made in June 1944. The further problem of working out the relationship of achievement to school types, age, socio-economic situation of pupils' families, and to returns from administration of the Spanish and English tests in Mexico and Texas has been highly complex. A study of organization, curriculums, and teaching personnel of the Puerto Rican schools has been a somewhat easier task, but one that has called for considerable further information from the officials of the department of education and the University of Puerto Rico. In this effort a number of conferences with the individual teachers and officers from Puerto Rico have been held at Columbia University and the University of Texas during the past year. The political aspects of the teaching and use

of English in Puerto Rico have held the attention of people there for many years and have had a number of repercussions in Washington; this has become increasingly the case in recent years. In making reports and recommendations, the committee has sought to set forth and judge the situation so far as possible as a strictly pedagogical problem.

The committee is hopeful that the Inter-American (equated Spanish and English) Tests can be revised in the light of the large administrations and put on the market for wide usage. Efforts have been continued to find the money necessary for a first plating and printing of this revised edition—a relatively small investment as compared with the heavy expenditure already made on this undertaking. A number of requests for the tests have come from agents and individuals interested in Latin American matters, and the committee has been able to meet some of these from the small stock remaining of the original issue. As a result of its long activity the committee has become a sort of clearinghouse for information respecting foreign-language teaching. During the past year a good deal of correspondence of this type has taken place, and copies of earlier publications by the committee have been distributed so far as these are available.

Another long-due obligation of the committee, the publication of *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1938-42*, has suffered further delay in issue. The manuscript has been ready for a considerable time and printing has been repeatedly forecast, but delayed by wartime and postwar conditions. It is now hoped that the volume can be brought out during the next few months. This will be the third volume in the *Analytical Bibliography* series.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

I have no hesitation in bringing to your attention the matter of a needed federation of the interests of the organizations concerned with educational motion pictures as an important problem in American education. You will remember that through the Motion Picture Project several years ago we dis-

covered great potentialities in motion pictures as a medium of education. These observations were confirmed over and over again in the educational and training programs of the Army and Navy. In the meantime the Council is now, through a grant of \$125,000 from the Motion Picture Association of America, Inc., exploring and planning for some of the most sorely needed types of motion pictures in the schools and colleges.

There is no denying that there is confusion with respect to the production, evaluation, and distribution of educational motion pictures. The producers of educational motion pictures are now engaged in an uncoordinated and often ill-advised program of production. Educational administrators and teachers do not know what films to use because there is no well-developed system of evaluation. Numerous organizations engage in the distribution of films. Where to secure equipment is still a mystery to most teachers. Few schools have worked out an integrated method of using films. Indeed, even with the rather remarkable developments of the past few years, only a small proportion of the teachers of the country have films and equipment available for use.

In this field, as in tests and examinations, developments should not be left exclusively to the uncoordinated efforts of commercial interests or even of voluntary organizations which as yet possess insufficient resources. The organized educational profession should find a means to consider the related problems of production, evaluation, distribution, and use of educational films through some coordinated attack. In other words, there is need (as I have upon more than one occasion recommended) for an American film institute which should coordinate and strengthen all aspects of the educational film situation. Indeed, in the light of developments, an American institute of audio-visual materials would further coordinate activities in this rapidly growing area. In this connection may I express my pleasure at the recent organization of the Film Council of America, which is certainly an important step in the right direction. I trust that the American Council on

Education may be helpful in securing further recognition of the need for coordination in this important field.

There is also an urgent need with respect to one part of this problem, namely, that of evaluation of educational films for international exchange. If an international convention providing for the importation of educational films free of customs duties is organized, there would need to be set up some method of identifying educational films on the basis of agreed-upon standards. Even now the State Department, in order to facilitate their export, especially to Canada, is certifying to the educational character of motion pictures produced in this country.

This activity is doubtless being undertaken by the State Department in lieu of any adequate facilities among the voluntary agencies to identify and evaluate educational motion pictures. Certainly such an activity, which I have urged from time to time, would be appropriate for an American film institute. In our system of government we depend upon the voluntary agencies to accredit schools and colleges. Similarly, if teaching materials, including films, are to be accredited or attested as educational, the task is peculiarly one that should be undertaken by the organized educational profession. In my opinion, the government would welcome this further evidence of the willingness of the profession to carry on an activity which is so clearly a part of its responsibility.

Motion Pictures

The Commission on Motion Pictures, appointed in February 1944, has now been at work for approximately two years. The purpose of the Commission is to determine what new films and other audio-visual materials are needed by schools and to make available to producers plans and specifications for specific films.

I have already mentioned the substantial grant made by eight major Hollywood producers to the American Council on Education through the Motion Picture Association of America to carry out this five-year study.

From national surveys which were conducted, it was determined that the greatest need for new production was in the fields of democracy and world geography.

At the present time the educational research material has been completed for approximately fifty films for a new course in world geography and for forty-five films on democracy. The work in geography is being carried out under the personal supervision of Wallace W. Atwood, president of Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts. Dr. George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, is chairman of the committee on democracy films. These films are designed to be used in secondary schools.

Film topics have been recommended for approximately one hundred films in the field of democracy. Thus far, the educational research has been completed on half of this number, and film treatments have been prepared for fifteen subjects. The first group of these treatments has been turned over to the Audio-Visual Aids Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies for evaluation and recommendations.

During the past year work has been started in two additional fields—mathematics and art. Mark A. May has been appointed chairman of the committee on mathematics. Outlines for needed films for plane geometry and trigonometry have been prepared. Outlines are being developed for films in arithmetic and algebra. The work of the mathematics committee is being coordinated with the Multi-Sensory Aids Committee of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent of schools of Montclair, New Jersey, is chairman of the committee on art films. This committee is composed of members of the various art associations who, in addition, represent the universities, teachers colleges, junior and senior high schools, and commercial art. A program for needed films in the field of art is being developed by this committee.

Some preliminary work has also been done in developing new audio-visual materials in teacher training, health, and

education. The Commission plans to explore the needs and possibilities in other fields as rapidly as possible.

In addition to turning over to producers the results of these studies, the Commission is also making available completed scenarios, film treatments, or educational research data on specific films.

Dr. Mark A. May, director of the Institute of Human Relations, Yale University, is chairman of the Commission on Motion Pictures. Gardner L. Hart is director of the project, and the offices are now located at the Institute of Human Relations, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven 11, Connecticut.

In addition to the activities of the Commission on Motion Pictures in Education, Mrs. Helen Seaton Preston, in the central office of the Council, has been carrying on an information service, which includes information on position opportunities in the field, advising with persons concerning all phases of visual education programs, and supplying information on courses in audio-visual education for persons studying under the GI Bill of Rights. A number of preliminary conferences have also been held relative to the place of audio-visual materials in the program of UNESCO.

Filmstrips

With the lifting of wartime controls on film stock, a greatly expanded distribution of the Council's filmstrips has been possible. A total of 10,791 filmstrips in the series on *Life in the United States* has been sold to schools, colleges, and other educational organizations from October 1944 (when they were put on sale) through April of this year. The original series of thirty-three filmstrips in the *Life in the United States* series was produced in 1944 under the guidance of the Committee on Filmstrips and Filmslides, the late Sidney B. Hall, chairman, with the financial assistance of the Office of Inter-American Affairs.

The interest in the filmstrips has been such that the Council is now producing six additional subjects which help to fill out the original series. It is hoped that the new filmstrips will be ready for distribution at the opening of schools in Septem-

ber. Two of the new subjects will deal with important cities of the United States—New York and Pittsburgh. These will in no sense be travelogues, but will be produced to integrate with the original seven filmstrips on regional geography, that is, the relation of the city to the region—its reasons for being, its dependence on the industries typical of the region, its services to the region, and the like. The other four subjects will fit into the worker-industry group in the original series, which contains such strips as *Day on the Farm*, *Coal Miners*, *Railroad Transportation*, and *Railroad Family*. They will deal with the textile industry, the oil industry, the steel industry, and with merchandising as found in a large department store. No attempt will be made to document all processes found in any one of the above industries. Through attention to one or two key workers, subjects will attempt to indicate the general nature of the industries, working conditions, living conditions, socio-economic status, and impact of current problems on the workers. We hope these subjects will be important additions to this series which depicts how we work and live in the United States.

In my report last year, I indicated that our preliminary experience in the distribution of the filmstrips indicated certain trends. Our second year of distribution substantiated these trends, and it is, therefore, well to restate them here. First, there is a wide demand for the simpler visual aids of high quality. Second, this demand is not limited to school systems with flourishing departments of visual education. Third, individual schools are building up their own collections of the less expensive visual aids. Fourth, the usefulness of filmstrips is not limited to the teaching of skills, but is important in the field of social studies. The filmstrip project has been developed by Mrs. Helen Seaton Preston of the Council staff.

Filmslides

In June of 1945, the project for assembling thirty-three teaching units of color filmslides on the Other American Republics was brought to a close and eleven complete sets of

the units deposited in regional depositories selected in co-operation with the Office of Inter-American Affairs. This project, like the filmstrip project, was carried on with the financial assistance of the Office of Inter-American Affairs. The major purposes of that Office were accomplished with the depositing of the sets in regional distribution centers from which the Inter-American centers over the country could secure them. However, it was recognized that these eleven sets of the slides would be entirely inadequate to meet the demands of schools and colleges throughout the country. In September of last year, therefore, the Council offered the slide units for sale. Delivery on the first orders was made in February. Orders for the slides have been coming in slowly, for these materials are much more expensive than the black and white filmstrips. However, considerable interest has been shown in the slide units, and comments on the quality of the units have been gratifying. Many of the slide units are particularly well suited to the college level and offer important material not available through any other source or in any other form.

The Council is not at present engaged in the assembling or production of any additional units in this field. However, Miss Florence Arquin, the former director of the filmslide project, was sent to South America for six months this past winter under the auspices of the Department of State to photograph additional units of the kind which she prepared for the Council.

AVIATION EDUCATION

Through funds provided by contract with the Civil Aeronautics Administration, the American Council on Education has agreed to undertake a program of research in the field of aviation education, with particular emphasis on teaching materials and visual aids appropriate for use at the college level. This activity is an extension of the program initiated several years ago which I have described in my annual reports for 1944 and 1945.

The planned activities include (1) the development of a

program of evaluation, development, and correlation of the most pertinent and suitable aeronautical education teaching materials, particularly those offered at the collegiate level; (2) a recommendation on the suitability of these teaching materials for use as textbooks, outlines, guides, visual aids, and apparatus in aeronautical curriculums and programs.

The chief effort under the grant during recent months has been the revision of the *Survey of Collegiate Courses in Aviation and Related Fields*, published by the Council in 1944. It is hoped that the revised edition will be ready for publication in the late summer of 1946.

Under consideration is a project in which it is hoped a number of junior colleges in the state of California will participate during the winter of 1946 or the summer of 1947. Plans for working on this project at an earlier date had to be abandoned because of the heavy enrollment of veterans in most of the junior colleges which were interested in cooperating in the program.

SOUTHERN REGIONAL STUDIES AND EDUCATION

The Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education this April is completing three years of work in stimulating resource-use education and research-translation efforts in the South. The services of John E. Ivey, Jr., as executive secretary for the committee are being continued, provided for on a part-time basis by the University of North Carolina. In addition the committee is arranging with the University of Kentucky, George Peabody College for Teachers, the University of Georgia, and Tennessee Valley Authority, and other institutions and agencies to provide the part-time services of a staff to work with the committee and the executive secretary in conducting the committee's program.

The committee set for itself several specific objectives to be accomplished in its first three years of work. These were:

1. To study the needs for translating research on southern resources and opportunities into effective educational programs, methods, materials, and media.

2. To bring educational research, planning, and administrative personnel in the South together to plan for translating research into education.

3. To assist states in organizing state facilities for stimulating and carrying out resource-use education and research-translation programs.

4. To assist in the provision of regional services to help southern states in their resource-use education and research-translation programs.

Each of these goals has been substantially achieved during the past three years, and the scope of the committee's work and its specific accomplishments are described in the following sections.

Regional Services and Programs

1. Conducted Gatlinburg Conference I (forty participants from eleven states) and distributed the report of the conference, under the title *Preparation, Distribution, and Use of Instructional Materials Related to the Resources of the Southern Region*.

2. Prepared and published *Channeling Research into Education* (3,000 copies, supply exhausted).

3. Conducted Gatlinburg Conference II (110 participants from thirteen states and twenty regional agencies) and published the report of the conference under the title *Education for Use of Regional Resources*.

4. Conducted conference with representatives of Negro regional agencies (Atlanta, Georgia, November 14, 1944).

5. Conducted conference with representatives of regional resources (Daytona Beach, May 26, 1945).

6. Assisted in developing the program of the South Central Resource-Use Education Committee.

7. Arranged for and is now cooperating with the University of North Carolina in the production of a seventh-grade level volume on southern resources and problems.

8. Arranged for and is now cooperating with George Peabody College for Teachers for maintaining a Regional Materials Service.

9. Serves as secretary for advisory committee on Regional Volume and Regional Materials Service.

10. Publishes and distributes a periodic newsletter, *Resource-Use Education* (2,000-3,000 copies per issue).

11. Provides a clearinghouse on information regarding regional, state, and institutional programs and materials in resource-use education.

12. Collaborates with Southern States Work Conference, Southern Rural Life Council, Tennessee Valley Authority, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and other regional organizations for purposes of program coordination and development.

Assistance to State Programs

1. Consults with state groups and institutions in every state in the region (thirteen).

2. Assisted the Alabama Polytechnic Institute in planning and establishing its Research Interpretation Council and continues to provide consultative services.

3. Assisted in setting up and securing personnel for position of Resource-Use Education Supervisor of Alabama State Department of Education.

4. Assisted in preparation of original organization plan and program for research-translation project in Mississippi State Department of Education and Mississippi State College. Assisting in the operation of programs. Reviewed and revised Delta State Teachers College resource-use education project plans.

5. Assisted in establishment of Materials Bureau at Louisiana State University.

6. Assisted in development of Texas Resource-Use Education Committee and is continuing to provide consultative services.

7. Assisted in development of Florida Resource-Use Education Committee and is continuing to provide consultative services.

8. Assisted in preparation of original plans for Georgia

Resource-Use Education Committee and is assisting in implementation of program.

9. Assisted in preparing original plan, organization, and program for the University of North Carolina's Division of Research Interpretation and is continuing to render consultative services.

10. Assisted in preparation of original purposes, policies, and procedures for North Carolina Resource-Use Education Commission. Assisted in preparing draft of request for financial assistance. Assisting in planning and implementing the program.

11. Assisted the University of Virginia to crystallize plans for a resource-use education training program and is continuing to render consultative services.

12. Advised Kentucky committee on preparation of book and teaching materials on Kentucky resources.

13. Assisted with and participated in more than fifty state and institutional workshops and study programs during the past two years.

Institutions and agencies in the region have advised that the committee's function as a coordinating and service facility in resource-use education is meeting basic needs, and they have urged that this service be maintained. The committee is now able to make arrangements for the continuance of its function by securing services from cooperating agencies and institutions. This support makes it possible for the committee to carry on its activities with only nominal and supplementary financial assistance.

The Future Program

The committee's membership is to be expanded from seven to a maximum of fourteen, with old and new members placed on rotating terms of four years. The following criteria will be observed in selecting new committee members: geographic balance; balance between research and educational personnel; connection with over-all state resource-use education groups; connection with regional groups or agencies; willingness of

institution, agency, or individual to pay travel expense and time of member incurred in attending committee meetings. All committee members will be appointed with the concurrence of their respective agencies and institutions.

The committee membership and staff services will continue to serve as a clearinghouse for information on resource-use education; assist states to develop and increase the effectiveness of their resource-use education programs; identify need for, develop, and secure coordination of regional programs in resource-use education; publish a periodic newsletter, *Resource-Use Education*.

In addition, in cooperation with several institutions and agencies in the South, the committee plans to coordinate a regional training program in resource-use education by the following means:

1. Increasing the number of adequately trained professional personnel in the South working in resource-use education.

2. Encouraging institutions to extend the adequacy of facilities for developing resource-use education and for giving all students an orientation in sound principles of resource use.

3. Encouraging institutions to collaborate so that their graduate students and faculty members can take advantage of special training and experience which is available in the other institutions and agencies in the region.

4. Encouraging states and cooperating agencies and institutions in planning and carrying out programs which will involve the use of a larger number of staff members with training in resource-use education and research translation.

The committee will seek from the General Education Board fellowships to enable individuals to engage in a year of work-study experience. In recommending fellowships, the committee will be guided by the following criteria:

1. The relative importance of strengthening the resource-use education service of the institution or agency employing the applicant.

2. Applicant's interest and ability in resource-use educa-

tion as evidenced by his past work in program administration, teaching, research, or writing.

3. Extent to which the proposed study program will assist the applicant to increase the effectiveness of his organization's work in resource-use education and at the same time contribute to the professional development of the applicant.

4. Necessity for adequate geographic distribution and diverse professional interests of trainees.

In order to qualify for a fellowship, the applicant, with the concurrence and approval of the agency or institution serving as his employer, and the institution or institutions offering the training program, should submit to the committee a plan which:

1. Provides for a work-study experience in a resource development agency.

2. Provides special study in at least one institution other than the institution where the major work will be carried on.

3. Provides work experience or institutional study in an institution or agency outside the state.

4. In the committee's judgment will give the applicant adequate knowledge of (a) interrelationships among natural, human, and social resources; (b) scientific principles of resource use; (c) methods and materials in resource-use education and competence in their utilization; (d) knowledge of techniques in preparing educational materials.

The committee, on request, will assist the applicant in preparing a study program.

The institutions to which trainees go for study will be requested to encourage students interested in resource-use education, other than those who hold fellowships, to take an appropriate course of study.

Prior to the beginning of each academic year, the committee may sponsor a work conference for the trainees. The purpose of the conference would be to give the conferees a general introduction to the field of resource-use education, thereby getting them generally acquainted with programs, materials, methods, and personalities in this field.

The committee will develop, with appropriate resource-

development agency or agencies, mutual satisfactory procedures for handling work-study experiences.

A CURRICULUM SURVEY OF HAWAIIAN SCHOOLS

The American Council Committee, which conducted a survey of the curriculums of the public schools in the Territory of Hawaii and of the Teachers College at the University of Hawaii during December 1944 and January 1945, spent the remainder of the past year in preparing and editing the report of the survey. A preliminary report of eighty-five pages was forwarded to Hawaii on February 1, 1945, for the use of the Holdover Committee of the territorial legislature in formulating its educational policies and developing an educational budget for the biennium 1945-47. Both houses of the legislature unanimously adopted the entire report and instructed the Department of Education to put all of its provisions into effect at the earliest possible moment.

As soon as the preliminary report had been sent to Hawaii, the committee began work on the final report which is to be published by the American Council on Education under the title *Hawaiian Schools: A Curriculum Survey, 1944-45*, by Edgar M. Draper and Alice H. Hayden. This report will be off the press in June, and 1,500 copies will be forwarded immediately to the Department of Education of the Territory of Hawaii. The American Council is retaining 500 copies for distribution in the United States.

CONCLUSION

The Council has in process an extensive program of studies and activities but certainly no more extensive than is called for by the rapidly developing events of our day. Whatever success we have attained in this program is due to the hearty cooperation of men and women from all parts of the country who serve as officers of the Council and as members of Council committees and to my associates on the Council staff to all of whom I shall always be grateful for their loyal and unflagging support.

May 3, 1946

GEORGE F. ZOOK

APPENDIX

Publications

American Council on Education

May 1945—May 1946

A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States

Edited by Carter V. Good. 680 pp. December 1945. First printing 12,000; second printing 8,000. Third printing of 10,000 ordered. \$5.00.

Unfinished Business in American Education

By John K. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler. 64 pp. April 1946. First printing 27,500. Single copy \$1.00; quantity prices.

Helping Teachers Understand Children

By the Staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel, Commission on Teacher Education. 468 pp. September 1945. First printing 5,000; second printing 5,000. Third printing of 5,000 ordered. \$3.50.

Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs

By Ernest V. Hollis. Commission on Teacher Education. 204 pp. November 1945. \$2.50.

State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education

By Charles E. Prall. Commission on Teacher Education. 387 pp. February 1946. \$3.50.

Junior College Accounting Manual

By Henry G. Badger. Published jointly by the American Association of Junior Colleges and the American Council on Education. 128 pp. July 1945. \$2.50.

Education for Use of Regional Resources: The Report of Gatlinburg Conference II

Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. 129 pp. October 1945. 25¢.

Reading Ladders

By Margaret M. Heaton and Helen Roberts. Committee on Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools. 12 pp. February 1946. 15¢.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION STUDIES

Psychological Examination for College Freshmen: 1945 Norms

By L. L. Thurstone and Thelma Gwinn Thurstone. Series V, No. 10. 34 pp. May 1946. 10¢.

United States Activities in International Cultural Relations

By I. L. Kandel. Series I, No. 23. 102 pp. September 1945. 75¢.

PERIODICALS AND INSTITUTIONAL PAMPHLETS

The Educational Record

Quarterly journal of the Council. July, October, 1945; January, April, 1946.

Higher Education and National Affairs

Bulletins Nos. 82 through 100, plus 19 supplements.

Constituent Members of the American Council on Education

Brief reports of their purpose, membership, staff, and programs. Planographed, 72 pp. April 1946. Distributed free to all Council members.

The American Council on Education: A Brief Statement of its Function and its Program 1945-46.

11 pp. November 1945. Free.

Members of the American Council on Education

19 pp. October 1945. Free.

ISSUED BY OTHER PUBLISHERS BUT SPONSORED BY THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Treatment of Asia in American Textbooks

Prepared under the direction of the Committee on Asiatic Studies (Howard E. Wilson, chairman) and the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations. Published by the Institute of Pacific Relations. 104 pp. April 1946. 40¢.

A Graded Word Book of Brazilian Portuguese

Compiled by Charles B. Brown, Wesley M. Carr, and Milton L. Shane for the Committee on Modern Languages. Published by F. S. Crofts and Co. 252 pp. June 1945. \$1.75.

Forerunners of the International Bureau of Education

Printed in England. Stock received by the Council for distribution in the United States, February 1946. 120 pp. \$1.50.

REPRINTINGS

Helping Teachers Understand Children

By the Staff of the Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel, Commission on Teacher Education. Second printing 5,000; third printing of 5,000 ordered.

A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States

Edited by Carter V. Good. Second printing 8,000; third printing of 10,000 ordered.

Teacher Education in Service

By Charles E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, Commission on Teacher Education. Second printing 1,500.

The College and Teacher Education

By W. Earl Armstrong, Ernest V. Hollis, and Helen E. Davis, Commission on Teacher Education. Second printing 1,000.

Chinese Writing

By Herrlee Glessner Creel. Asiatic Studies in American Education, No. 2. Third printing 3,000.

The Student Personnel Point of View

Series I, No. 3. Fifth printing 700.

Educational Counseling of College Students

By Bragdon, Brumbaugh, and others. Series VI, No. 1. Second printing 500.

Social Competence and College Students

By Esther Lloyd-Jones. Series VI, No. 3. Second printing 500.

New Directions for Measurement and Guidance

T. R. McConnell, chairman, Committee on Measurement and Guidance. Series I, No. 20. Second printing 600.

A Design for General Education

Edited by T. R. McConnell. Series I, No. 18. Third printing 750.

Motion Pictures for Postwar Education

Commission on Motion Pictures in Education. Series I, No. 21. Third printing 1,000.

The Issues in Education: 1946

By ROBERT M. HUTCHINS

THE GREAT PROBLEMS before us are first, can we survive? and second, what kind of life are we going to lead if we do?

Our monopoly of the atomic bomb will end within three to five years. There is no defense against the bomb, and there never will be. It can be brought into this country in any number of ways. If it is brought into this country in any way, it will destroy all our cities, no matter what our superiority in military power, including atomic bombs, may be. The alternatives before us are no longer peace or war; they are peace or the death of civilization.

When other countries have atomic bombs, the isolated, impregnable position in which the United States has luxuriated will be lost forever. This country will be in the geographical, military, and psychological situation of Czechoslovakia before the war. We may survive, but we shall constantly be wondering how long we are going to. And one false step in foreign policy, a field in which heretofore aimless blundering has been a harmless pastime, may precipitate universal destruction.

If we do survive, our economic and our political systems will undergo terrific strain. Virgil Jordan exaggerates very little when he says, "We can now make anything out of anything or nothing, anywhere in the world, in any amount, almost without measurable cost." When atomic power is available—and it will be any minute—distance and the scarcity of fuel and raw materials will cease to influence the location of industries and communities. New industries and new communities can be created anywhere because the cost of transporting the sources of atomic energy is negligible. These developments will be accompanied by the rapid dissolution of old industries and old communities. The whole economy, which has rested on work and scarcity, may fall to pieces in the new era of leisure and abundance. We may yearn for the depres-

sions and unemployment we have known as though they were the good old days.

If we survive, the leisure which the atomic age will bring may make peace more horrible than war. We face the dreadful prospect of hour after hour, even day after day, with nothing to do. After we have read all the comic books, traveled all the miles, seen all the movies, and drunk all the liquor we can stand, what shall we do then? All of us here are old enough to testify that all forms of recreation eventually lose their charm.

These changes in the economy will be matched by similar strains on our political system. The accelerated rate of technological change will make for great insecurity. Only a powerful central government, it will be supposed, can supply stability. The physical forces with which we are dealing are so tremendous that we shall be unwilling to entrust them to private persons.

Nobody has suggested that atomic energy should not be a governmental monopoly. The only question has been which branch of the government should monopolize it. Moreover, the duties of citizenship, which we have been able to take very lightly, will now be so complicated and burdensome that many people will feel that they cannot carry them; they will leave government to the government. We may even hear that we need a Leader. The principal problems of the government will be security and boredom. And so the world comes back again to bread and circuses.

What has all this to do with American education as we have known it? Very little. These problems are of the utmost seriousness and urgency. American education has been happily free from any sense of either. Apparently our people have wanted it so. I know that education is the American substitute for a national religion; but many countries have been able to reconcile financial support of a religious establishment with complete disregard of its principles. There has been no particular reason why American educators or the American people should regard education as serious or urgent.

Our country was rich, secure, and powerful. It was a country which even the grossest immorality and stupidity could not ruin. The American people have, therefore, been at liberty to devote themselves wholeheartedly to getting ahead. And though it was clearly possible to get ahead very nicely without any education at all, a social prejudice was fortunately established that you could get ahead a little better if you went to school a little longer. The more expensive and famous the school, the greater the advantage it conferred. It followed, of course, that what went on in the school was of little importance to anybody. What was important was not what went on in the school, but the fact that the pupil had been there.

In this atmosphere all of us in American education have grown up. To these purposes our institutions, for the most part unconsciously, have been dedicated. Now we face a new and totally different world, which has come upon us with incredible suddenness. We may not know what will hold this new world together; but we do know what will make it explode, and that is the pursuit of those policies and ideals which have characterized our country, and most others, in the past. Civilization can be saved only by a moral, intellectual, and spiritual revolution to match the scientific, technological, and economic revolution in which we are now living. If American education can contribute to a moral, intellectual, and spiritual revolution, then it offers a real hope of salvation to suffering humanity everywhere. If it cannot or will not contribute to this revolution, then it is irrelevant, and its fate is immaterial.

I believe in world government. I think we must have it, and have it soon. But the most ardent advocate of a world state will not claim that it can be maintained, or perhaps even achieved, without the moral, intellectual, and spiritual revolution to which I have referred. The prospects of World War III are only a little less attractive than those of a world civil war. For a world state to come into being, a higher degree of world community must exist than we can see at present; and for it to be maintained, a still higher degree

must be reached. Community requires communication, communication requires understanding, and, if understanding is not to lead to hatred and fear, the ambitions of the peoples of the earth must be such as not to arouse hatred and fear.

A world state demands a world community, a world community demands a world revolution, moral, intellectual and spiritual. World government is not a gadget which in one easy motion will preserve mankind. It can live and last only as it institutionalizes the brotherhood of man.

You will say that the task before us is impossible, and I admit it looks so. We must try to arrive at our destination in not more than five years. We must educate all Americans, for who can tell which Americans will have the decisive voice in the formation of our policies? We must try by example to lead the rest of the world to educate itself; for, if education succeeded in changing the hearts of Americans, but the hearts of other peoples remained unchanged, we should merely have the satisfaction of being blown up with changed hearts rather than unchanged ones. I do not expect an American audience to have enough faith in the immortality of the soul to regard this as more than a dubious consolation.

You may feel that there is a certain disproportion between the means I have chosen and the end I have in view. You may suggest that I myself have pointed out that little in the record of American education indicates that it is interested in or qualified for leadership in a moral, intellectual, and spiritual revolution throughout the world.

My answer to all objections is the same: this revolution is necessary, and therefore possible. We do not know what heights men can achieve if they understand that it is necessary for them to reach them. We do not know what education can accomplish, because we have never tried it. We never had to. Now education is a serious and urgent business.

Consider the question of time. I decline to take advantage of the opportunity for recrimination on the subject of the Chicago bachelor's degree and content myself with asking

whether anybody honestly believes that it is impossible to complete a program of liberal education in less than four years. Or is there anybody who can prove that Father Gannon of Fordham is wrong in saying that liberal education should and can be completed by the age of eighteen, that is, four years earlier than is normally the case? Under present conditions the burden of proof is on those who would pretend that we have time to waste.

Consider the question of education for all. One of the most amusing features of the educational situation is the outraged cries of educators at the spectacle of the hordes of people clamoring for education. It is as though the bench of bishops should adopt a resolution complaining because too many people wanted to go to church. Isn't this the opportunity we have been waiting for? Don't we believe in education? Don't we agree that in a democracy we must educate everybody or abandon universal suffrage?

If we understood, and could make our people understand, that education is the most serious and urgent business in the world, could we have any doubt that we could find the means to carry on the work? And as for the geographical scale on which education must now operate, we may remind ourselves that the problem before UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, is not more difficult under modern conditions of transportation and communication than that which Horace Mann faced in Massachusetts a hundred years ago. The imaginative use of the instruments which technology has given us, for education rather than destruction, could give education a scope of which our ancestors could not dream.

Think of the chance we have now in adult education, and the responsibility, too. Work is the enemy of education, and we are entering an age in which there will be unprecedented leisure for all. Leisure and recreation are not the same. Leisure has nothing to do with idleness. Leisure is that portion of the individual's time which he devotes to his moral

and intellectual development and to participation in the life of the community of which he is a part. The more leisure there is, the better for civilization.

If we want to help save the world within the next few years, we must attend to the education of adults, for only they will have the influence within that period to affect the course of events. If we want to save adults in the atomic age from the suicidal tendencies which boredom eventually induces, if we want to build a world community, we must regard the continuing education of our people throughout life as our principal responsibility. It can no longer be looked upon as a casual activity conducted by a university for the purpose of helping underpaid instructors gain a little extra income, and attended by third-rate bookkeepers who want to learn how to become second-rate bookkeepers.

Think of the time, thought, effort, and money we have wasted on vocational training. Its relevance to a moral, intellectual, and spiritual reformation is certainly remote. And its relevance to the task of earning a living, which was always open to question in view of the obvious superiority of training on the job, will reach the vanishing point in the atomic age. When we can make anything out of anything or nothing, anywhere, in any amount, almost without measurable cost, the fraction of our lives that will go into making things will be about the same as that which fortunate savages devote to picking their daily diet off the breadfruit trees, and the training needed for the job will be about the same, too. The vocational education the world needs is education for the common vocation of citizenship. This is liberal education.

In the United States the phrase "college of liberal arts" conveys no meaning to the mind. Certainly it does not mean that here is an institution devoted to liberal education. It usually denotes an institution in which the liberal arts are not taught. The only other definition that would cover almost all, but probably not all, of the enterprises called colleges of liberal arts is that they are institutions which do not award the Ph.D. degree. The trouble with this definition is that it

does not differentiate these colleges from kindergartens, elementary schools, and high schools. We do not know what these colleges could accomplish if they organized themselves to give a liberal education and then proceeded to give it, without regard to the demands of graduate schools, parents, football coaches, and academic vested interests.

Many colleges boast that they have a highly diversified curriculum, or indeed none at all, in order to develop the special aptitudes of their students. I have the impression that this kind of program results from the special interests of professors rather than the individual interests of students. Students can be interested in anything that is made important to them. A liberal college should have no difficulty in the present world situation in making liberal education important to the young people committed to its charge.

If the student-centered college is really a professor-centered college, its curriculum, if any, is unlikely to add up to a liberal education. The graduate schools which prospective professors must pass through to gain entrance to the faculty club are composed of narrow departmental specialists engaged in training narrow departmental specialists. Such narrow specialization is a necessary ingredient of the advancement of knowledge; it must be maintained for the purpose of advancing knowledge. But it has nothing to do with liberal education.

For liberal education we need a new type of teacher, and hence a new type of graduate school. It should be liberal, too. That is, it should be composed of teachers and students who have had a liberal education and who are eager to help others to acquire one. The members of the faculty should not be selected in terms of their competence in specialized fields, but in terms of their capacity to see knowledge as a whole, to engage in candid and intrepid thinking about fundamental problems, and to guide the student in his efforts to do such thinking for himself. It should be a community devoted to integration, to unification, to synthesis, to bringing order and intelligibility out of the chaos of the modern world.

The colleges and universities today are characterized by the loss of community within them. Since everybody is a specialist, nobody can communicate with anybody else. The conversation among the students is about athletics and among the faculty about the weather. Both students and faculty lose the sense of communal support in their intellectual enterprise, a sense which is of tremendous advantage in a college with a prescribed curriculum. But what is worse, it is impossible to rely on institutions which have no community within them to lay the foundation for a community in this country or a community in the world. The antics of alumni at reunions suggest that no community can be established among the products of the higher learning except by artificial exhilaration, and such community as results can hardly be described as moral, intellectual, or spiritual.

Some of the most venerable of our institutions of learning have now endorsed the movement to restore community to higher education. One of them has actually gone so far as to require the reading of eight of the Great Books of the Western World. Another suggests that a few of them might be read in the summer. We are getting on. The movement is now respectable, and it is to be hoped that it will gain momentum. But we may hope also that this movement will not fall prey to the popular tendency to substitute names for things. For many years we have attached the name education to anything that went on in an educational institution, and the name research to anything that reflected the curiosity, however idle, of those who had found their way into academic life. Now we seem likely to attach the name liberal to anything that is not science and technology.

It is true that we do not need to emphasize the importance of science and technology. Now that they have won a war for us, the tendency of American students and American philanthropists to flock into these fields will be accentuated. It is true that our greatest problems are not how to improve the material conditions of existence and how to exploit the forces of nature. Our greatest problems are how to exist at

all in the world which science and technology have made, and how to direct the power they have placed in our hands. Upon these problems science and technology shed little light. In the atomic age they cannot even defend us from the atomic bomb.

Nevertheless, natural science is a necessary part of a liberal education, for the citizen must understand the natural environment in which he lives. Though scientific research can contribute little to the moral, intellectual, and spiritual revolution upon which the future of civilization depends, the scientific method and the scientific spirit have a considerable part to play in it. Moreover, to say we have had too much natural science, let us have more social science and humanities, is, in the present condition of the higher learning, to substitute names for things.

Does the student in the humanities and the social sciences learn the arts of communication? Does he learn to read and write? Does he master the disciplines which for centuries have been regarded as indispensable to the attack on any intellectual task? Does he come to understand the ideas and ideals which have animated mankind? Does he learn how to tell the good from the bad, the true from the false, the beautiful from the ugly? Does he discover what the ends of life are and what are the purposes of organized society?

Does he understand the tradition in which he lives? Does he learn how to be human, to see the connection between man and man, and to fit himself to become a member of a community which shall embrace all men? We know that ideas, understanding, criticism, and ethical and political theory have almost vanished from the humanities and the social sciences, to have their places taken by miscellaneous information, tours of the stockyards, and data-collecting. We know that the fundamental problems of our time are philosophical. Yet philosophy has disappeared from the social sciences. Instead of underlying all studies in the humanities, philosophy is confined to one department, which is steadily losing influence as language, literature, art, and history vainly try to become scientific.

What the world needs, then, is a liberal education worthy of the name. This would be an education educating a man's humanity, rather than indulging his individuality. It would be an education appropriate to man, offering him the habitual vision of greatness, and dealing primarily, in a world of rapid change, with values independent of time or place. I believe that such an education is supplied by a curriculum consisting of the great works of the mind and the liberal arts. As the *Manchester Guardian* said editorially the other day, "The more we understand the forces of nature, and so increase human power, the more important it is that we should understand human character and draw inspiration from the great civilizing writers and thinkers of the past. For the changes that simplify man's relations to nature complicate man's relations to man. Today, when we have achieved intoxicating triumphs over nature, the nations of the world are more afraid of each other than at any time in their history."

Still, I do not insist upon the great civilizing writers and thinkers of the past. If anybody can suggest a curriculum that is more likely to achieve the objects I have named than the one I have proposed, I shall gladly embrace him and it.

The new kind of graduate school needed to produce the new kind of teacher which this program requires would not be concerned with the training of departmental specialists in the traditional fields, but with the education of men who were eager to qualify themselves to understand and to help others understand the nature, the works, and the destiny of man.

We must now engage in the liberal education of everybody, of all adolescents and all adults. Of these two, adult education is the more important. In fact, one of the principal purposes of the liberal education of adolescents should be to prepare them to go on with liberal education throughout their lives.

This program requires drastic changes in our educational institutions. But they are not impossible. They are changes which should have been made years ago, for everything that I have suggested is something we should have been doing all

along. Until these changes are made, we cannot claim that the task which history has imposed upon us is beyond human achievement. All we can say is that we do not care enough about it to attempt it. By a clear definition of our purpose and a relentless exclusion of the irrelevant, the frivolous, and the trivial, we may hope to reach the goal. We may hope to help our fellow-men to survive and to lead the good life if they do. It is better to try and fail than to decline the challenge.

The Education of Veterans

By GENERAL OMAR N. BRADLEY, USA

I HAVE COME here today to talk about veterans and about education for veterans. I am concerned with the present and the future. But in considering both, it is helpful to recall past experience. I am thinking of what we learned from the war in working together.

We had a good Army, a good Navy, a good Air Force. But our Army could not have landed in Normandy and pushed on without the help of the Navy which brought it to the beachhead. Our Navy could not have won without the Army. In like manner, our combined Army and Navy could not have done the job without the bombing and air attack of our Air Forces. Operating separately, each would have been insufficient to secure and develop a beachhead on the continent of Europe. Operating together, they were invincible.

The same things seem to apply today to American education. We have our federal government, with national agencies such as the Veterans Administration, the United States Office of Education, the Retraining and Reemployment Administration, the Housing Administration, and many others. We also have our forty-eight states, each with its individual educational responsibilities. We have private colleges and universities, all of them proud of their traditions and accomplishments. And we have local communities, embodying the vigor and strength inherent in our individual American pattern of life. Each constitutes an important part of the present and the future of American education. Operating separately, no one of them has sufficient strength to win the good fight. Operating together, they, too, can be invincible.

More than 12 million veterans have already returned from World War II. Many have applied for educational benefits of the GI bill. Many are now in training under provisions of Public Law 346 and Public Law 16. The result is large-scale pressure on the plant facilities and on the administrative and

teaching capacities of colleges and universities. The pressure probably will continue for the next five years. It is reasonable to assume there will be at least three-quarters of a million veterans in our colleges and universities by September. Estimates show that for the next five years veterans will make up approximately 75 percent of the enrollment in men's colleges, and from 30 to 50 percent in coeducational institutions, depending upon the proportions of men and women admitted.

On March 31, 1946, there were more than 300,000 veterans in schools under Public Law 346, of whom about 63 percent were in colleges and universities. Almost a quarter were in trade and business schools. About 7 percent were in junior colleges, teachers colleges, and normal schools. Another 6 percent were below college level. In addition, the number of disabled veterans who were receiving training in schools and colleges under Public Law 16, as of the end of March, totaled nearly 42,000.

Figures compiled for the previous month, February, indicate to some extent what goals veterans have in mind when they enroll for education. Of veterans enrolled under the GI bill during February, almost a quarter were in liberal arts. Fourteen percent were in various kinds of engineering. Eleven percent were studying business administration and commerce. Lesser groups were in agriculture, accounting, teaching, and law.

Total *applications* from veterans for education under Public Law 346 by March 31, 1946, had reached 1,687,000. Twenty-seven percent of those approved have already enrolled in education and training courses. The balance of *more than one million* represents the group from which a future demand upon the country's education and training facilities may be expected. This is a tremendous challenge to our educational system. At the same time, it presents a magnificent opportunity to colleges and universities. Freed from the financial limitations that might have kept them from college, veterans represent a new generation of school-going youth. I am convinced that educators will look on them as a challenge; that

they will ready their plants and procedures to meet it.

My conviction results from an encouraging precedent. Between July 1943 and the end of 1945, the Navy's V-12 College Program embraced nearly 160,000 young men. Total Army enrollments in our colleges approximated a quarter of a million students. That was a tremendous contribution toward winning the war. Yet it is now apparent that our colleges are destined to play an even more tremendous role in the postwar period. Veterans are knocking at the doors of every college and university throughout our land with the assurance they will be heard. Those raps at the door must be answered; the doors swung wide in welcome. For what is happening is a broadening, a democratization of educational life.

No one has better explained why no veteran should be permitted to knock unanswered than President Conant of Harvard University, who wrote: "The nearer we approach through education to our avowed equality of opportunity . . . and the better our schools teach and practice the basic tenets of American democracy, the more chance there is for personal liberty as we know it to continue in these United States."

Now, what kind of men are these veterans? To answer that question we must again turn to experience. In one short year the test of experience has turned many hasty earlier judgments into proved untruths. A year ago there was much talk about the veteran being emotionally unstable, bitter, maladjusted. A year ago it was assumed by many that veterans formed a separate educational group. A year ago some people were smugly confident that veterans would have little interest in higher education.

Time has proved these pessimistic guesses false. Time has proved that veterans want first to be—and are—citizens, not just veterans. Time has proved that the veteran in college is more earnest in his work, more eager to attend classes, more likely to get better grades than the nonveteran student. He has little time to waste on the teen-age frills of normal peacetime students.

The flood tide of veterans moving toward the campuses of our colleges demands the creation of changed techniques to fit changed conditions. It does not mean the lowering of classroom standards or the loss of academic independence. It does not involve subservience of colleges and universities to governmental agencies—whether they be local, state, or federal. At the same time it does not preclude cooperation. Nor does it deny resort to daring changes to meet this postwar load. In some instances, colleges must break with old procedures to handle their new problems. In others, they must relax their suspicion of intervention by the government and seek a cooperative working arrangement that will enable them to do the job. I feel sure colleges will prefer to face these facts and build broader and better educational opportunities for future generations of America.

Should this challenge go unheeded, I believe the failure of our colleges and universities to think in large terms and translate that thinking into workable reality will backfire. This would give added ammunition to those misguided people who visualize education solely as the task of the federal government.

Our job is simply defined. It is to assist the veteran in securing educational opportunities to which he is entitled by law. We accomplish this primarily by paying both tuition and subsistence while the student is studying. States take over in the accrediting or approval of the institutions. This responsibility carries with it the task of developing standards and criteria, of appropriating sufficient funds, and of selecting a qualified staff to discharge those duties properly. The same obligation to participate to the fullest extent of their abilities applies to colleges and universities. Getting a veteran into school or training necessitates considerable administrative overhead on the part of the Veterans Administration. Oversimplifying it, all a veteran has to do is to show his discharge, establish his eligibility, and find his college. The rest of the process falls to the Veterans Administration. The

veteran must be interviewed, registered, have his time of entitlement calculated, be established in training, have his subsistence determined and paid.

When I became Administrator of Veterans Affairs nine months ago, we found conditions cramped, procedures cumbersome, methods old-fashioned. Experts in administrative detail were brought in to help clear up the confusion. These men have already axed away a considerable part of the underbrush, they have closed off many roads that were tortuous, zigzag, or just plain dead ends. Examples might be cited. We recently investigated and learned that in one regional office it required twenty-one days from the time a veteran filed his application until he received his certificate of eligibility. In another office the same Veterans Administration operation took a horrible average of forty-six days.

Today in these same offices, the procedure is greatly improved. In many regional offices, he can secure a certificate of eligibility within a matter of several hours. If he is outside the city, it will ordinarily take from one to six days by mail. In other instances where we must wait for records, the lapse, of course, is longer.

Prompt payment of subsistence money to the veteran is essential if the program is to work. Earlier this year, we had many complaints from veterans without checks. Some resulted from work-breakdowns within our organization. Others were due to misunderstandings on the part of the veterans; sometimes, to delays on the part of the school. Since sending representatives to colleges to determine the cause of non-payment, we have unearthed a strange assortment of facts. Sometimes the veteran has not understood that it is necessary for him to wait thirty days for his first payment. In numerous other instances, the veteran had neglected to submit his application for payment. And in still other universities, we found backlogs where delays resulted from the institution's failure to do its job on time. On one campus, we found forty-six veterans charging they were payless victims. Eighteen of them had never submitted claims for GI schooling. Another

four were delayed in the college office. Twenty more had been stalled by overloaded operations.

Since starting on this trip, I have heard of a few cases where men have not been paid, and I am wondering if the visits of our representatives to the schools are properly advertised to the student body. We have directed that our representatives go to each educational institution the first part of each month, remain there as long as it is necessary, and interview any students who have not received their subsistence check; and yet, we still find students who have not been paid whom we have not heard about. We suspect that maybe the visit of our representative to the educational institution has not been properly advertised to the student body and that they do not know about the chance to come and present the facts and straighten out their payments. We are hoping that the schools will cooperate in giving this wider publicity, and we feel that we must also do our part in giving these visits publicity.

We are checking and rechecking our organization now to clear the lags that slowed handling within our shop. At the same time, we are working on procedures that will be necessary to stop payments promptly with the summer closing of school and open them just as quickly for the fall resumption of classes. In both instances we shall be almost entirely dependent upon quick and accurate reporting from the schools.

Of all the problems facing educators in their desire to expand, housing is the most difficult. Although the need for additional student space has resulted from large-scale veteran enrollment, we have no authority in the Veterans Administration and no means of relieving this campus housing shortage. Yet, we must face the fact that no veteran should be denied the right to study simply because there is no place to live. The veteran who has given three, four, or five years of his life in service feels that he has earned the right to return to school. Moreover, he has seen and performed too many impossible things to put much trust in "it can't be done."

A start has been made in federal assistance on university

housing. Of the first 190 million dollars allotted for temporary veteran housing, 30 percent went to colleges and universities. Of the 253 additional millions provided by Congress, 55 percent has been allocated for veteran student housing. Federal funds alone, however, will not meet the crisis. Enterprising educators sensed this many months ago. Some of them have improvised solutions to fit their own peculiar problems. In New York State, for instance, several institutions have combined to administer a resident university center in a new surplus housing area—relatively near the schools.

Although a survey conducted by our education and training division indicated that sufficient over-all space may be available for veteran students next fall, the picture is also a misleading one. Because most schools fall within legal tuition limits, veterans will tend to cluster in the larger and more popularly known institutions. In many instances, they will overlook or sidestep the normal schools and junior colleges. Again, the veteran is entitled to as free a selection as possible. If these larger universities can increase their capacities still further with improvised housing, they owe it to the veteran to do so. *Second or third choice selections are justified only when we have exhausted every resort on the first.*

Apart from housing, other adaptations and changes in college procedure will have to be considered. I know that educators themselves have spoken of the need for changed educational methods in the changed educational needs we face today. Freedom of education has been purchased by the young men and women who look to it now for help in meeting the future. They cannot be denied admittance because the system is too brittle to widen its doors. Some of your colleagues have argued that this is the time to put aside traditional practices where they threaten to bottleneck the load. They contend that education must match its capacities to the quickened pace of its times. They ask that education help the student make up lost time. Where changes are required in teaching staffs, in schedules, equipment, techniques, and materials, there was never a better time to change. We are chal-

lenged by an opportunity that will enable us to widen greatly the base of higher education with the GI bill. It offers us a fascinating adventure in working democracy. We cannot afford to turn it down. Where procedures adapted to the good old days are in danger of blocking our progress, we must change procedures rather than divert our advance.

I am reminded of my experience as an Army educator in the Infantry School at Fort Benning. When war came, it was obvious the school could not handle the traffic if we were to insist on the traditional way of doing things. We took the only alternative possible and reorganized the courses, changing our methods to fit the wartime requirements of more than 20,000 officers rather than the peacetime needs of a few hundred. I might also add that, having seen the old method and the new, I was convinced, and everyone agreed with me, that the instruction given under the new system was far superior, so far as the student was concerned, to that we had given under the old.

I accept as axiomatic that this expansion can be accomplished without a lowering of standards or skimping of education. I know that no educator would willingly accept changes to aid expansion unless the total teaching accomplishment remains top-flight by the standards of the college. Veterans who stand to lose the most in any relaxation of standards would certainly be the first to object.

In writing the GI bill, Congress wisely provided education with safeguards from the danger of encroachment by our federal government. The law under which we operate specifically prohibits us from supervision or control of state educational or apprenticeship agencies, and educational or training institutions. The Veterans Administration has no pretensions in education. It has no schools of its own. It plans no schools of its own. It will not meddle in education. And it will not interfere with the educational system. Responsibility for educating and training veterans belongs to each of the forty-eight states—to the educational systems within these states.

Such supervision as we may employ is not designed to probe

into the areas of state responsibility. It will not interfere in activities of the institution, nor can it ever endanger academic freedom. Rather it is designed to protect the veterans' rights in newly opened trade schools. And it will safeguard his interests in training-on-the-job in establishments where no previous training had been provided. It does not mean that we shall root about in reputable educational institutions. It does not mean that we shall get under foot in established apprenticeship or training courses. I assure you we have enough to do without straying into the provinces of others on whom we know we can count. Even where the training is defective, we can do nothing but withdraw the payment of subsistence. Under no circumstances can we usurp the approving power of the state. Under no circumstances can we meddle in the activities of the institution.

In the supervision of college or university students, we prefer to rely entirely upon the institution. We are wholly dependent upon their reports on his attendance, and we shall accept their accounts on his satisfactory completion of work. Occasionally we find that colleges, too, are victims of their heavy work load. Under these circumstances errors sometimes occur. Recently a training officer discovered that a veteran receiving subsistence for his college work had left the institution almost seven months ago. Because we are responsible for the honest expenditure of funds, we shall be dependent upon each institution's record of veteran student attendance. Colleges and universities can simplify our task and underwrite the effectiveness of this program if they will make certain that all reports submitted by them are both accurate and timely.

The freedom from interference guaranteed educational institutions under the GI bill is essential to the safety of this vast adventure into democratic education. The historical rights of individual states is basic to further development of public education. As educators, you may be perfectly assured the Veterans Administration believes in, respects, and operates in full recognition of both these foundation stones. We are concerned only in doing our full part, our lawful part

to secure for the veteran the educational rights and benefits to which he is entitled under the law.

We are confident that the employers, the states, the colleges, and universities are doing their full part, too. We are confident they will continue to do it in the difficult years ahead.

The job is too big for any one of us alone, in or out of the government. But it is neither too big nor too venturesome to be accomplished by all of us, in and out of the government, cooperating one with another. I believe that I can say with truth that the combined efforts of educators such as you of our local communities, of the states, of the federal government—in unity every step of the way—are bound to be invincible.

DISCUSSION

Question: In your remarks you mentioned the fact that this load of veterans in the colleges will probably last about twelve years. I think some are a little puzzled how long to prepare for. I am wondering if you meant that the load resting on the colleges would be terminated in five years' time, or when the peak load would probably come.

General Bradley: That estimate was a guess that five years would be the time it would be a major problem. As you know, the veteran has nine years after the date of his discharge, or after the end of the war, whichever is the later date, to complete his education. Our estimate is that within five years we will be what you might call "over the hump." It will then begin to approach normalcy, although I think you can expect some veterans to be in your schools and universities up to almost the maximum of nine years. That estimate of five years is based on the experience of our people after the last war.

I might add here not to hesitate to ask me any questions. I will not be embarrassed, no matter what you ask. I am used to being asked embarrassing questions.

Question: General, may I ask how many men have been returned from the service now? Did you say two million?

General Bradley: A little over twelve million from World War II have been returned and have been discharged from the service. Last August, on VJ Day, there had already been two and one-half million discharged because of age, physical disability, inaptitudes, etc., and that has jumped from two and one-half million last August to a little over twelve million at the present time.

'They were going out at the rate of over one and one-half million a month last fall during November, December, and January.

Question: How many will be released, probably, in the next year? Can that be estimated?

General Bradley: I am afraid that I cannot answer this. The demobilization rate has been dropped off very materially. I do not have these figures, but by fall we anticipate that the rate of demobilization will not be faster than one hundred thousand or so a month, as compared to a million and one-half last fall.

Question: We had about two thousand American volunteers in the American Field Service with the British and French. I believe Mr. Gallant, the director, has applied for them to be eligible for educational benefits. I have two questions to ask: Who will make the final ruling? Has any ruling been made?

General Bradley: It requires legislation, which answers one question. They are not eligible under the present readjustment act because they did not serve in the armed forces of the United States.

Question: Are we correct in understanding that men now going in under Selective Service become eligible for the veterans' educational rights during the period that the war emergency exists and is not called off by the President?

General Bradley: Those going in under the Selective Service Act and all of those entering under volunteer enlistment are entitled to all of the benefits of the readjustment act, the so-called GI bill. Congress passed a law during the winter, in order to encourage enlistment, which provides that anyone enlisting now would also be entitled to the benefits of the bill, which include education.

How long that will continue will depend upon further acts of Congress. I don't believe (I may be wrong on this—I cannot remember all of the dates) but I do not believe that they set a limit on the date for enlistments which would be eligible. That is one of the reasons why we estimate that there will be eventually some twenty million veterans; already there are over twelve million out of service in World War II and just under four million from all previous wars, which makes a total of approximately sixteen million now including those in service already who will come out soon and those entering service. We anticipate having probably eighteen to twenty million before we get through with the so-called war and emergency.

Question: Do you know the feeling of the GI's toward the coop-

eration of the universities in admitting them when they do not have the required amount of credits prescribed for admission prior to the war? Do they feel that they are being given credit for whatever war service they have and that the universities are making it easier, or are they finding universities still rigidly adhering to requirements?

General Bradley: I am afraid that I am not sufficiently informed on that matter to answer. I expect you people are far better able to answer that, because you are closer to these matters of trying to get adequate education. I am afraid that any answer I would give you on that would not be worth anything.

Question: I happen to be president of one of the institutions in New York State which has agreed to cooperate with the veterans' situation. My feeling has been all along that the colleges of New York State or any other state should do all that they can to educate the students on their own campuses and use those facilities to the maximum before we enter into off-campus centers, because I feel as you do that being present on a college campus means a great deal to the veteran. How can we strike a happy medium on that situation?

General Bradley: The quotation to which you refer was given in answer to a demand upon us to establish veterans' colleges. I believe the federal government had a little experience with this after the last war and the experience was not too pleasant. We believe that if we establish colleges, we could not possibly set up the standards in the short period which we have. We would have to have some of the instructors that you need, some of the equipment that you need; and when we got through, the men would not come to our school except as a last resort.

We think that it would be much better if you can take care of them by expanding your own colleges. I feel that—in answer to your question—if all of the veterans and others who want education this fall cannot be taken care of, it would be far better for somebody to wait a year or so to get into college than it would be for the federal government to try to set up schools and run them itself.

Question: General Bradley, in conjunction with your streamlining, what word of encouragement can you give us with regard to the honoring of bills for tuition? You said that you wouldn't duck. Can you give us any words of encouragement there?

General Bradley: I thought I had given sufficient orders to take care of that; I will issue some more, if not.

We have authorized the state regional offices to pay schools for tuition in part payment, and not wait until the end of the term. We are not authorized to pay in advance. We can pay from month to month, if you want it, for the month just passed. If that does not meet your requirements we may have to get a special law or something passed to handle it. We can only pay you for what has passed. We can pay you part-time payments and not wait until the end of the term. If that does not solve it, I will be glad to take up your individual problems afterwards, and see if we can do anything for you. Have you been able to get that much? If you haven't, let me know and I will try to straighten it out.

Question: I do not want to state our difficulty publicly, but at the present time the government owes us \$1,250,000, I think.

General Bradley: See me right after this meeting; I don't have two millions in my pocket!

Question (Another speaker): Along that same line, we do not have a million coming, but we have around four hundred thousand dollars coming to our school; but the regional offices say we cannot submit a voucher until the end of the semester, because the fifth column on the voucher asks for the date that service was rendered, and they say, therefore, that they cannot pay it monthly or quarterly. It takes us nine months to get payment of our vouchers.

General Bradley: Either they are wrong or I am wrong. My people have told me that we can pay for it before the end of the term—before the end of the quarter, I mean. What are your states?

Reply: New York, \$1,250,000.

Reply: Wisconsin, \$400,000.

General Bradley: I think I can straighten that out; I will try; I may be wrong. I am quite often wrong. But I think I am right that we can pay you before the end of the term.

Reply (New York): We are greatly encouraged; that is all I want.

Question: General Bradley, have you any figures on the number of veterans who have begun going to school under the GI bill, and have discontinued attending these schools?

General Bradley: I do not have those figures here. I am sorry.

Question: Are there any figures on that?

General Bradley: We could give you an approximate figure during the next week. We will then have a progress report including up until the end of April that will probably show it. I think I could get that figure if you will give me a note on it. I do not happen to have it now.

Higher Education and Government in Wartime

By WILLIAM E. WICKENDEN

AS THE TUMULT and the shouting dies, we are all being re-conditioned into our civilian selves. Something of the same miracle which turns a battle-hardened marine back into a loving husband and a tender father is happening to each of us. The crisis which but yesterday threatened to undo higher education, like pains of childbirth, is mercifully passing into forgetfulness and its tribulations have little relevance except as guides and warnings. Little would be gained by recounting in detail the strivings and the frustrations or the doings and the omissions of higher education during the war years. They are all recorded with wise objectivity in Dr. Zook's annual reports, in the Council's invaluable bulletins on *Higher Education and National Affairs* and in the compact summaries of House Report No. 214 on "The Effect of Certain War Activities upon Colleges and Universities." If you wish to dip into diplomatic history, read Dr. Edmund E. Day's address to the North Central Association in 1943 on "War Time Responsibilities of the Colleges and Universities"; and for a comparison of educational experiences in World War I and the early years of World War II, nothing can equal Dr. Samuel P. Capen's succinct summary in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD of October 1942.

You will recall the immediate response of our higher institutions to the event at Pearl Harbor and its expression at the Baltimore conference where the total resources of higher education were pledged to the war effort and a comprehensive plan sought for their utilization. The provisions of the Selective Service Act and the broad character of the War Manpower Commission seemed to offer fair grounds for hope that the unhappy experiences of World War I need not be repeated. Actually, these hopes were doomed to a large measure of disappointment.

As the spring months passed, many plans for war training were advanced, but no signs of a master-plan could be discerned. The armed services rushed into open competition for college men. The Navy announced its V-1, V-5, and V-7 programs calling for an annual enlistment of 80,000 men. The Army set up Air and Ground Force reserves in the colleges with a proposed strength of 198,000 men, and an implied pledge that reserves would be permitted to complete their college courses. The colleges began to draw criticisms as sanctuaries from the risks of combat. By the time of the second Baltimore conference in July 1942, confusion and disillusionment were mounting in the college world.

Efforts to inaugurate a broad program of training in colleges comprehending both military and civilian needs, which were spearheaded by the Cowley Committee of the United States Office of Education, met their Waterloo soon thereafter. The War Manpower Commission's report in August sealed their doom with the historic statement, "All able-bodied male students are destined for the armed forces. The responsibility for determining the specific training for such students is a function of the Army and Navy. For those students, men and women, who are not to serve in the armed forces there should be developed through the War Manpower Commission plans of guidance which will help the students where they can make the most effective contribution to the war effort, including essential supporting activities. The War Manpower Commission should also make plans for the instruction of those for whom further training is necessary to enable them according to their qualifications to make their most needed contributions to the support of the armed forces."

With this declaration all hope for any master-plan for the full integration of higher education with the war effort died. Thenceforth only piecemeal and specific measures were to be expected, and only such eventuated. The Army and the Navy each acted solely in its own behalf, and comprehensive planning by the War Manpower Commission for the guidance and training of nonmilitary personnel was simply a dead let-

ter. Foreshadowed in this declaration was a significant shift of policy and practice on the part of Selective Service. The Service, as created by act of Congress, clearly envisaged a selective apportionment of manpower between the armed forces and essential civilian functions, and the early usages of the system clearly embodied this policy. It was implicit in the Occupational Bulletins, particularly in Bulletin No. 10, and was still in force in March 1943, when local boards were authorized to consider deferment for men in training for shortage fields, provided such preparation could be completed by July 1, 1945.

From that point on, the shift of policy and practice in Selective Service was rapid and decisive. There were increasing evidences that the military command was in the driver's seat, that everything was being risked on the gamble of a short war, that actual inclusion in the armed forces with combat risks was being made the test of war participation, and that miscalculations as to manpower actually available were leading to hasty decisions to abort large portions of the training program. The ultimate consequence was that virtually all *protection to training and recruitment for civilian health services and critical technological professions through student deferments* had been withdrawn by the spring of 1944.

Evidence was also multiplying that there had been large-scale failure to anticipate the demands of the war in the realm of research and technical development. What had been everybody's business was apparently nobody's business. It was perhaps inevitable that at first the military mind, with its emphasis on mass organization, logistics, and discipline, would have little comprehension of the world of science and seemingly little grasp of the intricate integration of research and technology with the organization and conduct of combat operations. Meanwhile we were perilously close to losing the war to the more advanced military technology of our enemies in the air and under the seas. A heroic task of improvisation, with a hurried mobilization of our scientific forces, had to be undertaken, chiefly under civilian direction.

There was no time to inventory and organize the widely dispersed scientific resources of the nation. Great research agencies had to be set up almost overnight around existing nuclei, where immediate direction was available and where the necessary secrecy measures could be effectively enforced.

The consequence, as all remember, was the draining of research talents from the nation's campuses into a small group of university centers. As the program expanded, it was broadened to include 105 institutions under contract arrangements, but more than 90 percent of the funds were allocated to eight of this number. The wholesale withdrawal of research talent from campuses over the country was further accentuated by the demands of industry as normal sources of supply were dried up by Selective Service and college teachers were importuned to fill the gaps. The immediate results, in terms of war emergency, were immensely fruitful; some of the dislocations were temporary, but many are permanent; research gained enormously in prestige and largely in practical potency; but all this was done at the cost of widely dispersed damage to the nation's scientific resources, which cannot be made up for more than a generation.

The training programs assigned to colleges and universities by the Army and the Navy were specific war projects and should be judged accordingly. The Army college programs were initiated in the spring of 1943 and reached their peak in December of that year when a total of 215,000 men were enrolled in approximately 350 institutions. If the professional schools of medicine, dentistry, and veterinary science are excluded, the number of institutions utilized was only 283. By the end of August 1944, the trainees had been reduced to 40,000 and the institutions to 138, or 98 excluding professional schools. The Army programs, while painstakingly mapped with the aid of civilian educators, suffered at nearly all points from improvisation and shifts of policy. There were embarrassing delays in starting and in filling quotas, the students were often ill-selected, the military regimen left scant time for study and no scope for participation in campus life,

the subject matter was predominantly technical and often over-condensed, programs were curtailed or abandoned and units modified or withdrawn on short notice, and the directing personnel was not always at home in the college world. There was little to suggest to the colleges that their work was more than a wartime chore, willingly enough performed but largely lacking in intangible compensations.

The manpower program of the Navy could be planned with more definite foresight since it was accurately coordinated with the program of air and ship construction and, hence, was predictable in amount, character, and time schedule. While the programs were predominantly technical and based on familiar engineering models, the values of literacy and social understanding were not overlooked. The calendar and daily regimen, while intensive, were readily assimilable to college usage. The student was encouraged to enter freely into campus life. The basis of student selection, whether from campus, fleet, or high school, was generally well coordinated with other requirements. The personnel in charge was selected with discrimination, effectively trained, and *intelligently cooperative with college authorities*. The program moved smoothly into operation from July 1, 1943, to its peak on October 30, 1944, at which time there were 105,336 students under instruction on approximately three hundred campuses, or, exclusive of professional schools of medicine, dentistry, and theology, 138 institutions. The subsequent transition to a permanent program of Reserve Officer Training has been smooth and efficient. It seems safe to predict that the Navy will be pleasantly remembered on nearly every campus where it was represented.

Taken as a whole, the colleges are likely to recall their wartime experiences with the Military Establishment in negative rather than positive terms. With all colleges eager to serve in the fullest sense and hoping for some comprehensive role in the vast undertaking, it came as a disillusionment to find that less than one-third could be used, and those only on a basis of limited technical training. Actually, the total number of in-

dividual institutions with Army and Navy programs was 489 out of a total 1,702, and many of these programs were of short duration.

Many individual teachers experienced an added sense of disillusionment in finding the traditional values of liberal education so largely thrust aside in favor of immediate technical training. For some this entailed an actual dislocation, in that they were called upon to step out of their normal fields to handle the unfamiliar materials of required war courses. These sacrifices, together with the added burdens of accelerated schedules, year-round operation, augmented individual loads without corresponding increments of compensation, staff depletion, and budgetary difficulties, were accepted with realistic willingness as part of the war's sacrifices, but with little sense of pioneering or adventure.

Novel teaching techniques in language areas and elaborate visual methods of conveying technical information were recognized for their worth as specific tools, rather than revolutionary developments. There were few if any immediate gains in counseling or guidance techniques of permanent significance. Little new educational territory was opened up, with the exception of area studies associated with military government.

There were, of course, significant by-products of permanent value. The general idea of acceleration, with which many had toyed and a few experimented, had its first full-time test. Many teachers discovered what teachers of engineering had long known—that with effective motivation the weekly schedule of work could be increased by one-third or more without visible damage. On the other hand, it was almost universally agreed that year-round work is dangerously fatiguing to both students and faculty, that it tends to degenerate into a spiritless routine, that it destroys the zest and spontaneity of campus life, that it sacrifices the gains from vacation or co-operative work experience, and that the resulting loss in personal maturity at graduation more than offsets the gain in time in many instances. One may add, however, that little or

nothing in war experience would tend to discourage the entrance of particularly gifted students to college at earlier than the average age.

Among the intangible gains from war experience was the discovery that both individual institutions and the comprehensive system of higher education are tougher and more elastic than generally supposed, that their survival values in the face of shrunken enrollments, deferred maintenance, staff depletion, and budgetary deficits were extraordinary, and that graduates of liberal and technical disciplines alike have shown a most reassuring adaptability and resourcefulness under the stress of the emergency. Higher education has come out of the war somewhat frustrated, bewildered, and depleted, but at least with a sound confidence that it has not failed—that it was the very qualities of its staff and its product which made possible the extraordinary feats of improvisation in military organization, in research, in industrial and agricultural production, in transportation, and in combat skills by which victory was finally won.

In contrast to the sense of disillusionment and negative achievement engendered by much of their experience with the armed forces, the colleges can take solid satisfaction in certain war accomplishments in realms of civilian planning and execution. For illustration, I shall refer briefly to two examples, the Engineering, Science, and Management War-Training Program conducted under the Office of Education, and the United States Armed Forces Institute conducted jointly by the Education Branch of the Army Service Forces and the Educational Services Section of the Navy.

The impending shortage of engineers and other technical personnel was foreseen by educators and the United States Office of Education as early as 1940. Plans were then formulated for short, intensive courses in the colleges to up-grade partially trained men and women, and the program was formally inaugurated in October of that year. In its essence it was a scheme of contractual projects under which the colleges proposed training projects in local centers of industry, the

Office of Education passed on their eligibility and budgets, and allotted funds (where approved) to the sponsoring institution to be expended and accounted for under simple and largely self-administering regulations. Here was a minimum of bureaucratic direction and control and a maximum of decentralized initiative and execution. The overhead costs were microscopic and the colleges did the work for bare out-of-pocket expense. A simpler, more economical, more adaptable, and more widely serviceable plan for the purpose could hardly be imagined. During the five years of the ESMWT program and its more restricted predecessors, more than 200 institutions participated, 68,000 sections were organized, 1,706,135 persons were trained, and slightly over \$57,000,000 expended. Without the supplementary personnel thus provided, industry and government agencies would have been in almost impossible straits as a result of draft depletions and the drying-up of normal sources of supply. Many a college not hitherto engaged in extension work discovered its possibilities and values, while pre-existing extension work was immensely strengthened. Industrial communities which had not previously enjoyed any organized service of technical education came to know its advantages. Thousands of auxiliary teachers were drawn into association with permanent faculties, to their mutual advantage. A nationwide impetus was given to education in the technical institute realm, hitherto the most neglected area of our postsecondary educational system. Perhaps most significant of all was the impressive demonstration of government support for education without bureaucratic invasion of institutional independence which the program afforded.

The United States Armed Forces Institute (originally the Army Institute) was established at Madison, Wisconsin, on April 1, 1942, for the purpose of aiding men in the armed services to undertake programs of self-improvement during their leisure time. By 1943 it was offering 64 correspondence courses, mostly in high school and technical subjects. By 1944 this number had increased to 230, including many of college

level, and by 1945 the formal enrollments had grown to over 517,000. Many millions of education manuals—textbooks for self-instruction—had been placed in the hands of soldiers and sailors, and great numbers of group classes had been organized. This vast production and use of educational materials was made possible through a contract between the War Department and the American Council whereby the latter was enabled to set up a staff to bring together from all possible sources the type of materials required for off-duty education both under USAFI and for the Army Education Program to follow the end of hostilities in Europe. As a special contribution, the Council developed through its own committee a notable project known as "A Design for General Education." This, in conjunction with the project for a special examination service to test and evaluate achievements in regular training and off-duty study programs (set up by the Council under Dr. Ralph W. Tyler at the University of Chicago), has resulted in a tremendous advance in promoting the less formal processes of education and in correlating them with the organized programs of established institutions.

As the war drew to its close, new issues appeared. One was provision for the return of veterans to civilian life, which finally crystallized in the GI Bill of Rights. Provision of educational benefits for veterans is universally acclaimed as a just and generous measure of far-reaching social significance. If any criticism is to be offered, it is the failure of federal authorities to consider the adequacy of the means at hand to carry these benefits out in the financially weakened and understaffed colleges of the postwar era. Once again education has been viewed more as a convenient and appealing means to pay a debt, rather than as a major goal in social planning, but this is only a transient item in the equation.

Another issue, of crucial importance and as yet unsettled, relates to universal military training. The early wave of public acquiescence, in which certain educators figured prominently, has given way to a wary skepticism in the face of revolutionary changes in the technique of war and a sober realiza-

tion of the nation's stake in organized world security. This Council's leadership in seeking to have the entire issue of national security, both military and diplomatic, reviewed by an impartial commission of the highest competence, before any commitment to piecemeal measures, stands out as an act of exceptional statesmanship.

Science is now universally recognized as our major resource—both for wealth and security—and as such is inevitably a public concern. If science is to be fruitful, it must be both strong and free. Domination either by military or bureaucratic arms of government would inevitably lead only to sterility. The critical depletion of the nation's scientific manpower is an appalling fact. While we have been engaged in the most intense and highly organized scientific undertakings in human history, we have actually been traveling the road to scientific suicide through our failure to conserve and renew manpower. The paradox is unparalleled and appalling. The proposals for a national science foundation, with large funds both for research and for the discovery and development of scientific talents among our youth, offers hope that our war-born deficits in personnel and knowledge may be made up within a short generation. If and when established, the foundation may serve as a definitive test of the ability of the federal government to contribute support to the cause of learning and yet leave it essentially autonomous. Equality of educational opportunity independent of fortuitous circumstances of geography and means has become increasingly imperative as a social goal. As a test case par excellence, the foundation plan is of profound concern to the entire educational world.

In brief compass, let us pass to a general appraisal and diagnosis of our wartime experience with government. Obviously, there has been little gain between the two great wars, and none perhaps on an over-all plane, in public planning for higher education as a wartime resource; nor has official concern been shown on any authoritative plane to prevent a tragically costly impairment of the nation's total resources for teaching, research, health service, scientific advancement, and

technological capacity. There was no focal point for these social interests. Faith in improvisation, distrust of specialized planning, and the expectation that thousands of localized but unrelated efforts would somehow add up to a coherent whole—the sort of carry-over from the pioneer days of the squirrel rifle which prompted Mr. Bryan's boast that a million men would spring to arms overnight—dies hard among us. In emergencies, we tend to rely on obvious and immediate measures.

The high command, to which we entrusted almost the entire direction of our war effort, has evidenced little understanding of fundamental educational and research processes and little grasp of their essential integration with military and industrial technology, nor is such understanding manifest in any large degree in official proposals for universal military training. In the light of events, it is scarcely possible to believe that we were at any time so desperately pressed for combat manpower as to justify our consuming the seed corn of the nation's health services, its science, learning, culture, and technology. None of our allies, even in their direst extremity, reached that situation. The immense number of combat-fit men retained in noncombat service, the limited use of women, and the persistent reluctance to use men of limited impairments do not sustain the claim of a dire shortage of manpower. While the evidence is largely of circumstantial and hearsay nature, it is hard to avoid the conclusion that the policies of the War Manpower Commission and of Selective Service at the top were largely influenced by considerations of political appeasement toward powerful, organized groups and colored by a desire to sustain military prerogatives and perquisites.

Leaving combat risks and casualties out of the reckoning, it seems incontestable that the wartime sacrifices and impairments of the educational world and of the learned and scientific professions closely allied with it were far greater than any imposed on labor, agriculture, commerce, or industry. The now fast-mounting inflation can only accentuate these dispari-

ties. The fault, of course, is partly our own; we are too few and too divided to count in an era of pressure-group government. But a large part of the responsibility lies within the structure of government itself. Patently, the critical deficiencies are not in the legislative but in the planning and administrative arm. Education, sciences, culture, and professional service cannot hope to hold their own without more equal authority on the plane of policy-making.

It is futile to match a minor government bureau and volunteer committees against two or more cabinet departments. The issues of national responsibility for education and research can no longer be evaded. The problem is one of creating adequate spokesmanship and participation in overall planning without dictatorial authority. On the latter point there are and will continue to be grave misgivings, although war experience with research, training, and service projects conducted on a contractual basis has given fresh grounds for hope that government can defend, sustain, and promote education without domination.

Until education has a due voice in the nation's seat of authority, the existence and activity of the American Council as an all-inclusive agency of joint spokesmanship and voluntary collaboration is literally indispensable. If we had not inherited it from the days of World War I, it would have been necessary to invent it during this war. What unity of purpose and action we have achieved must be credited almost wholly to it, as the educational world now universally recognizes. If and when education becomes more firmly seated in the hierarchy of public authority, the Council's essential functions will still remain. We shall need it both to stimulate official action and to maintain safeguards against official domination, and we shall need it to do our exploratory work in areas not yet organized. It is in just such balance and cooperation of voluntary and official instrumentalities that the genius of American democracy has found its highest expression.

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A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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Educational Needs in the War-Torn Countries¹

By HAROLD E. SNYDER

A FEW WEEKS AGO, I stood before what had been a school in the village of Agios Theódoros, St. Theodore, on the ancient road between Athens and Corinth. The sturdy walls of stone were still largely intact and a portion of the roof had been spared. That was all—no glass, not even window frames, no steps, no floors, no stove, no school bell. Equipment? All had vanished long before the school was gutted by the raging fire set by departing Nazi soldiers who, three years earlier, had converted the school into a barracks. On one of the walls still appeared in Gothic letters their slogan, *Einigkeit bringt Macht*, "Unity brings strength."

A score of the men of the village—all who could be spared from the fields—were repairing the school for a gala reopening at the beginning of the fall term, working without pay so that their children might again have the benefits of education. But they were working not with lumber or saws or hammers or nails. Necessity had driven them to more primitive methods. Floors were gone. Lumber in arid Greece has always been at a premium. The few scattered forests in the mountains on the distant horizon had served to hide underground

¹ An address before the United States National Commission for UNESCO, September 24, 1946, Washington, D. C.

fighters whose sorties by night had harassed the enemy. So forests were burned out or leveled. When no coal, no oil, not even straw can be obtained for fuel, people search out every available scrap of wood and carefully husband it for the coldest winter nights and to cook an occasional warm meal. Wood suitable for flooring had entirely disappeared early in the war.

The men of St. Theodore had laboriously gathered by hand great heaps of stones and placed them outside the remains of the school building. These they were throwing through the frameless windows to build the cellar up to ground level. A thick layer of clay would be added and the floor would be complete. Windows would, of course, remain for the coming winter without frames or glass. Straw and vines would mend the roof, though it would be fragile and leaky to be sure. Heat would be totally lacking.

Each child would try to find a box and bring it to school to serve alternately as a seat and a desk. Pencils, paper, and notebooks are luxuries, available only on the black market at fabulous prices, but it was optimistically hoped that chalk and at least a few pieces of unfinished slate might be found—a great improvement over the scratching in the school-yard dust which served for writing during the previous school term.

The children of St. Theodore—those who survived the frostbite, the hunger, the disease without benefit of medicine, the terrors of enemy occupation—will at least have their school. True, their teachers teach with the aid of only a few tattered remnants of textbooks, have to recall what they can of lesson plans and methods, must improvise maps, globes, and science equipment. It is a meager education for children still suffering from the physical and mental tortures of war, retarded in schooling by two to four years. But, because of the determination, the faith in education, of the people of St. Theodore there is a school.

I have described St. Theodore only because there are hundreds of St. Theodores in Greece, Poland, Italy, Yugoslavia, Austria, the Ukraine, China, the Philippines, Japan, Germany, and throughout the world. Differences exist, to be sure, in ex-

tent of destruction and in details, but tragically reduced facilities for education at all levels in the war-devastated countries are the rule. Even in the Netherlands, Belgium, and France, I found educational opportunity seriously diminished owing to the loss of buildings, books and equipment, and the lack of trained teachers. At the UNESCO Preparatory Commission meetings last July educational leaders told of the problem of re-education of children of eleven and twelve whose only schooling has been that distorted variety allowed by Nazi rulers. They spoke also of shattered universities such as Liège, Caen, Warsaw, Manila, and of stripped libraries and museums. *In those matters which affect the minds and the spirit of youth, rehabilitation has scarcely begun.*

The youth of the world looks to America. It is calling out not alone for material assistance—important as that is—but for tangible evidence in any form of a friendly interest in its well-being. This applies as well to the teachers of youth. There is an intense eagerness on the part of educational leaders of the world to strengthen contacts with their American colleagues, an overwhelming desire to learn about American educational developments and to benefit from advances in technique and curriculum made here during the war years. Some of the traditional conceptions of education abroad are being seriously challenged from within as a result of profound social and economic changes brought on or accelerated by the war. In France and in several other countries universal secondary education is being insistently demanded. New subjects such as health education and vocational training are creeping into the curriculum. Guidance is becoming recognized as a responsibility of the school. Newer methods—particularly visual methods—are gaining enthusiastic adherents. In this whole process of revaluation and revision American advice and assistance is desperately needed and almost universally desired.

It is, of course, neither proper nor feasible to attempt to impose upon other countries the American educational pattern. The changes mentioned above indicate, however, that the time

is ripe to provide such contacts and such direct assistance as may simultaneously aid the war-devastated countries in their efforts to provide broadened educational opportunity for all youth, give them the benefit of those of our experiences which they recognize as relevant to their needs, and in the process enrich American education for international understanding and strengthen the intellectual, spiritual, and cultural ties between us and our neighbors throughout the world.

Educational needs abroad range from basic school supplies, such as paper and pencils, to technical and professional books, laboratory equipment, visual-education materials, grants for advanced study, exchange of teachers and scientific, technical advisory missions and opportunities for short visits by foreign educational leaders to study recent developments in the United States. UNRRA has fed the hungry, cured disease, and set the world on the road to economic recovery, but it has been severely limited by its charter in what it has been able to do for education. UNESCO as now constituted is not an operating rehabilitation agency. Large American governmental appropriations for international educational aid have not been forthcoming. In any case, in a task so huge, voluntary efforts are needed to augment what governments can do. Individual and group participation in any such program is essential if the values of mutual understanding between peoples are to be fully realized.

To coordinate the many significant voluntary efforts already under way and to provide stimulation and direction for new efforts, there has been established a Commission for International Educational Reconstruction. This commission was sponsored initially by the American Council on Education which called a series of conferences in the spring of 1946 attended by representatives of the State Department, the Office of Education, UNESCO, UNRRA, and approximately twenty leading national educational organizations. The commission is now composed of the following persons, each representing a major educational group: T. G. Pullen, *chairman*, National Council of Chief State School Officers; A. J. Brumbaugh, *vice*

chairman, American Council on Education; Lawrence L. Bethel, American Association of Junior Colleges; Livingston L. Blair, American Red Cross; William G. Carr, National Education Association; L. H. Dennis, American Vocational Association; Stephen Duggan, Institute of International Education; Nickolaus L. Engelhardt, American Association of School Administrators; Milton S. Eisenhower, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities; W. L. W. Field, National Council of Independent Schools; Ralph E. Himstead, American Association of University Professors; Msgr. Frederick G. Hochwalt, National Catholic Educational Association; Mary E. Leeper, Association for Childhood Education; Rayford W. Logan, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes; Kathryn McHale, American Association of University Women; J. Earl Moreland, Association of American Colleges; Edward O'Connor, National Catholic Welfare Conference; W. W. Pierson, Association of American Universities; Wilfred H. Ringer, National Association of Secondary School Principals; Agnes Samuelson, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Paul V. Sangren, American Association of Teachers Colleges; Herman B. Wells, National Association of State Universities. Support for the project has been provided by an initial grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

The Commission for International Educational Reconstruction has been charged with responsibility for administering the remaining UNRRA fund set aside for the shipment of educational supplies. It receives from UNESCO, UNRRA, and the various governments information concerning the general needs of war-devastated countries and specific requests for assistance. The commission is not an operating agency and does not handle directly requests for assistance but serves as a clearinghouse of information among organizations. It advises and assists organizations in developing programs of educational reconstruction. The commission issued in October the first of a series of monthly bulletins of information listing needs, specific requests, and reconstruction activities under way

or planned. It has also issued a handbook listing the many agencies working on this problem. Copies may be secured by writing to the executive secretary at 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

A major supplement to the commission's program is its sponsorship of the National Conference on International Educational Reconstruction. Membership in the conference is open to all organizations—educational, religious, civic, and social service—willing to undertake a major activity relating to educational reconstruction in war-devastated countries and filing with the Advisory Committee on Foreign War Relief of the United States Government (successor to the President's War Relief Control Board) information concerning mode of organization. The conference holds occasional meetings to which all members of the conference are invited to send representatives. A number of committees will be formed to deal with specific problems involved in the various types of educational reconstruction.

The importance of the commission's work was underscored at the recent meeting of the United States National Commission for UNESCO (formerly the National Commission for Educational, Scientific and Cultural Cooperation) called by the Department of State. On the final day of the meeting of the United States National Commission, the following resolution² was unanimously approved:

WHEREAS, Consistent with the resolutions unanimously adopted by the UNESCO Preparatory Commission on July 12, 1946, and in view of reports at this conference, at the meetings of the Preparatory Commission, and by UNRRA and the American Press concerning the deplorable lack of facilities for the education of youth and adults in the war-devastated countries; the destruction of school buildings, libraries, museums and laboratories; the extreme shortage of books and other basic educa-

² Introduced by Kathryn McHale, seconded by William G. Carr, and unanimously adopted by the National Commission on Educational, Scientific and Cultural Cooperation (United States National Commission for UNESCO) in plenary session at the conference room of the Department of State, Washington, D.C., September 26, 1946.

tional supplies and materials; and the urgent need of technical and professional assistance and counsel from the United States; and

Recognizing the vital importance to the future peace of the world of rehabilitating not only the bodies but also the minds and spirits of those who have been subjected to the horrors of war and to the mis-education imposed by ruthless conquerors, be it

Resolved that the National Commission for Educational, Cultural and Scientific Cooperation go on record as urging UNESCO to place a high priority during 1947 upon projects for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of education in those countries devastated by war, and be it further

Resolved that this Commission urge American agencies concerned with education to give serious consideration to ways and means whereby each may cooperate with the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction in the rebuilding of educational facilities in the war-torn lands to the end that educational opportunity may be made available to all people as the right of each individual and the basis for international understanding and world peace.

The final lap of the inexorable race between education and disaster is on. Political and commercial treaties and ties are far from enough. The making of lasting peace depends quite as much upon the strength of cultural, intellectual, and spiritual bonds between peoples. The youth of the war-torn world eagerly seeks such bonds with America, while it demands as its heritage a share in the benefits of education. We must help the less fortunate countries help themselves in their struggle to restore and expand educational opportunity. We can thus directly facilitate the success of UNESCO and help to lay the educational foundation for a lasting peace.

Higher Education and Labor Relations

By DONALD J. SHANK

COLLEGES AND universities have frequently been accused of adopting, sheeplike, the newest educational fads. If Metropolis University sets up a curriculum in paper hanging or tax collecting, several big- and little-sister institutions will soon discover that they too have social responsibilities to train paper hangers and tax collectors. The recent line-up of institutions of all kinds to ride the exciting, but expensive, band wagon of nuclear physics lends credence to this accusation.

Some critics see in the increased attention given to industrial and labor relations by colleges and universities the development of another new and perhaps dangerous fad. The wide publicity given to the opening of the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell, plus the news that several other institutions are embarking upon similar programs in the early future, has caused many persons to ask the meaning of these ventures. Are these moves occasioned by the wave of industrial disturbances which followed the end of hostilities? Did the General Motors-UAW dispute over price and wage relationships encourage the entry of institutions of higher education into this controversial area? Are the colleges trying to control management or to curb labor? Who is behind this new educational development? What do the colleges and universities hope to do?

Few persons will not agree that the improvement of relations between labor and management is one of the most pressing domestic problems that faces the United States. With the broadening of social legislation at the federal and state level in the last twenty years, and with the consequent growth in the strength of labor unions, the need for better understanding on the part of all parties to industrial conflict has become imperative. The issues in labor-management disputes, which frequently affect the very life of the people of the na-

tion, are not simple issues which can be solved by power and strength alone. The representatives of all parties concerned with industrial peace—labor, management, and the government, or the public—must come to the conference table with mutual confidence, the best possible understanding of the issues, and the best ideas for their solution.

The term "industrial and labor relations" which has been given to this new area of collegiate study is comprehensive. In essence, it is simply the study of the relationships between employers and employees and between these groups and government. The objectives of the new School at Cornell, as stated in the Law of New York, are a good definition of the field:

It is necessary that understanding of industrial and labor relations be advanced; that more effective cooperation among employers and employees and more general recognition of their mutual rights, obligations and duties under the laws pertaining to industrial and labor relations in New York State be achieved; that means for encouraging the growth of mutual respect and greater responsibility on the part of both employers and employees be developed; and that industrial efficiency through the analysis of problems relating to employment be improved. . . . It is hereby declared to be the policy of the State to provide facilities for instruction and research in the field of industrial and labor relations through the maintenance of a school of industrial and labor relations.¹

As a matter of fact, the recent attention given to the field of industrial and labor relations does not represent a completely new development in higher education in this country. For many years schools of business administration in numerous institutions throughout the country have trained men and women to install and operate personnel programs. Research agencies in the fields of psychology and economics have been developed at several universities, such as Princeton and Yale, where intensive studies have been made of employer-employee relationships, primarily from the point of view of management. Such institutions as the Harvard School of Business Administration, the Wharton School, and other large

¹ Chapter 162, Laws of 1944.

schools of business have long given training in industrial relations. Such great technical institutions as Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the California Institute of Technology have also undertaken research in this area.

In the field of workers' education, the experience of the School for Workers at the University of Wisconsin over the last twenty years is well known. This program of extension institutes, conducted for specific labor unions, has reached thousands of working people and has done much to train them in their rights and responsibilities. Similar extension activities have, in recent years, been increasingly developed by various institutions affiliated with the Catholic Church, such as the University of Portland, Rockhurst College, Siena College, and others. These colleges, in certain cases, have actually instituted programs leading to degrees in the field of industrial relations.

In addition, special workers' schools have been organized, such as the Highlander Folk School, the Hudson Shore Labor School, the California Labor School at San Francisco, and the Pacific Coast Labor School at Berkeley. With the growing demand for education within the ranks of organized labor, both international unions and locals of the AFL and the CIO, have developed special training programs for their own workers. Summer courses have been instituted by unions in conjunction with collegiate institutions such as the University of North Carolina and Pennsylvania State College. Unions are now asking increasingly for an expansion of such cooperative projects.

In considering the implications of this expanding educational movement, particular attention will be given in this article to the experience at Cornell, since it has been most widely publicized and since it is perhaps the most comprehensive. The questions which should be asked regarding the Cornell program should, to a greater or lesser degree, be asked of most of the other collegiate programs now under way. It is essential that educators understand fully what is

being attempted in these new undertakings, how they developed, how they operate, and what their long-term social contributions may be. The following five questions are, therefore, proposed and are answered in terms of the Cornell experience.

1. *Is there a body of information and experience on labor-management relationships that can be taught?*

The fact that the educational, governmental, labor, and management leaders, responsible for the creation of the new division at Cornell, set it up as a degree-granting, integrated, four-year and graduate, professional school is a partial answer to this question. These men and women recognized that the study of industrial and labor relations must be soundly grounded on the social sciences. They did not believe, however, that it should be attached specifically to the discipline of economics or psychology or political science. They were convinced, moreover, that there was a large and important core of new teaching materials and experience which justified the creation of a separate unified school.

As a result, the curriculum which has been worked out at Cornell in cooperation with state leaders of government, labor, and management is a broad program in the social sciences. Ninety-seven hours of the 120 hours required for the degree, bachelor of science in industrial and labor relations, are prescribed. During the first two years the student takes a heavy dose of the social sciences—American history, sociology, social psychology, economics, law, American government, labor economics. He also improves his communications skills by year courses in English and public speaking. He takes a special one-term course in accounting, which emphasizes the interpretation of financial statements. He has an opportunity to observe workers on their jobs in a required field course. With the exception of an orientation course and the courses in labor economics, foundations of law, and workers and jobs, all of the courses are those of other faculties, chiefly of arts and sciences. The prescribed program, at present, does not

include any foreign language or any science. The only formal mathematical training is accounting and statistics.

The technical and professional core of the program is given in the junior and senior years. In the junior year every student takes a course in business organization and management and a course in corporation finance. Every student takes a year course in the history of labor and labor-union organization and management. In addition to one year of statistics, there are required courses at the junior level in human relations in industry and administration.

In the senior year, a year's course in collective bargaining, mediation, and arbitration and a year's course in personnel management are supplemented with special one-term courses in legal and constitutional aspects of labor problems and social insurance, in social security, and in public relations. During the last semester in school, all students study in a special laboratory in industrial and labor relations where actual office and conference situations are set up.

Although most of the advanced work is offered by the teaching staff of the School, certain courses are given by the College of Engineering and the School of Business and Public Administration.

Persons who have had little direct contact with industrial and labor relations will be surprised at the substantial literature which has developed in recent years in this field. In addition to comprehensive studies in economics, political science, psychology, sociology, and anthropology, there is a great wealth of material in the contracts which have been negotiated by thousands of unions and companies throughout the country. There is also a growing literature within the organized-labor movement that is of significance both to the workers themselves and to management. At Cornell these materials are being brought together. Where no teaching materials already exist, the staff is building materials from the current legislative developments at the state and federal levels and from the reports of labor and management groups and institutions.

2. Should colleges and universities attempt to develop programs in this field?

As pointed out earlier, many institutions have already been active in one or another aspect in the field of industrial and labor relations. Some universities have developed programs aimed at the training of personnel for management. Others have attempted to help workers in their dealing with employers. If the area of industrial and labor relations is a matter of social concern to the nation, and if colleges and universities are to serve genuine social goals, then this clearly is an area in which the best thought and planning of scholars and experienced workers in the field is required.

In so far as Cornell University is concerned, it should be pointed out that the impetus for the development of the School of Industrial and Labor Relations came, not from the University itself, but from the state legislature. Eight years ago, New York State established the Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions in the State of New York. This committee, a bipartisan body, under the chairmanship of Irving M. Ives, the first dean of the School, embarked upon an intensive analysis of labor-management relations in New York. It was the strong recommendation of this committee to the legislature which resulted in the formation of the School at Cornell.²

The Cornell program, unlike those of many institutions, was designed from the beginning to serve equally the needs of government, labor, and management. Any college which hopes to achieve this difficult goal must be certain that all three groups are given fair representation in the control of the institution, that the staff is chosen to assure fair consideration of all points of view, and that students are selected who are concerned with all aspects of industrial and labor relations.

Since its inception the Cornell program has had the wholehearted support of government, labor, and management leaders in the state. The University recognized that if it was to

² Board of Temporary Trustees of the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, *Report* (Leg. Doc., 1945, No. 20).

embark upon a program in this field, it must have the support and best thinking of all these groups. The charter of the University was amended to provide for the election each year of three members of the board of trustees from the field of labor in New York State. This year the chief state executive officers of the Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen and Engineers, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the State Federation of Labor were elected to the Board. At the same time, the state's chief executive officers in labor and commerce became ex-officio members of the board of trustees.

3. *Can those interested in government, labor, and management be taught in the same institution?*

Many social critics decried the idea that the Cornell School could offer a single required program that would be meaningful for those who would in future years sit at various sides of the conference table as representatives of management or of labor or of government. The experience of the first year of operation at the School has strengthened the opinion of all concerned with the venture that this not only can be done, but that it makes for better teaching and learning.

The students at Cornell are, it is true, an exceptional group. They are substantially older than the average college student, and many of them have had wide experience within industrial personnel organizations, labor unions, and governmental agencies. There are strong personal biases on many social issues, but the program of the School has served to focus the thinking of all groups on common problems. Students who came to the School with convictions that all labor leaders were wild-haired Communists or with convictions that all employers were slave-driving reactionaries have seen that the relations of labor and management cannot be explained with such glib generalities. As the students study together, live together, and work together, there is a growing sense of co-operation for the solution of common problems.

4. *How can nonacademic problems in industrial and labor relations be presented in a training program?*

No one at Cornell believes that all of the answers to all of

the problems in industrial and labor relations can be solved in the classroom. The curriculum is accepted as a starting-point for more intensive practical consideration of the problems in this area as they emerge in industrial life. The School utilizes two techniques to assure attention to the actual problems of industrial and labor relations.

In the first place, outstanding leaders from government agencies, labor unions, and management regularly visit the School for intensive give-and-take discussions with the students. During the past year at least two, and frequently as many as four, visitors a week came to the University for periods ranging from a few hours to several days. These men and women, who have spent many years working in this field, do not usually speak in the formal classes. They meet with students in small and large groups for informal and more personal discussions. Those who visited the School during the past year have agreed that they have never met a group of undergraduates so enthusiastic about the study of fundamental issues or so well informed about these problems. The School will continue and will expand this program of supplementing the classroom teaching with the visits of men and women actually engaged in work in this area.

The second major means by which students are brought into contact with actuality is the summer work-training program. Every undergraduate student in the School is required to spend three summers at work. During the first summer, if he has not had previous factory experience, he gets a job in an industrial or commercial organization. During his second and third summer, he is assigned to an opening in a governmental, labor, or management organization. Each student must, before graduation, have spent one summer working with labor and one with management.

During the summer of 1946, the first in which the School was in operation, 101 students were engaged in work-training programs. The School has been fortunate in the excellent cooperation which government, labor, and management have given to this vital phase of its program. Students have had

challenging and well-paying jobs in such varied agencies as the National Labor Relations Board, the New York State Mediation Service, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, the American Federation of Labor, and numerous large and small corporations from Maine to Colorado and from Illinois to Tennessee.

In one city in New York State this summer, a purely fortuitous situation developed which could not have been better planned by the School. In one large corporation in which the School had placed one of its students as an employee in the personnel department, a jurisdictional dispute developed. To this plant, for organizational work, was sent one of the students who had been employed for the summer by a labor organization in the state. When the election of the National Labor Relations Board was held, a student from the School, employed by the board, helped to conduct the election. In this way all three elements in the settlement of the dispute had students from the School as participants. The wealth of experience which such work brings to the students will necessarily influence the teaching program of the School.

5. What will be the potential social contribution of the students of the School?

The School does not believe that its limited number of graduates will solve all of the problems in industrial and labor relations in New York State. In October 1946 the total enrollment was limited to 227 undergraduates and 12 graduate students. The School does believe, however, that its students will go into government service, into labor unions, and into industrial and personnel offices within corporations with a better understanding of the rights and responsibilities of all parties in industrial relations. It believes that the people who complete the program of the School will have a more comprehensive and useful background and knowledge of social problems and social issues than those who have worked in this field heretofore. It believes that there will be a growing demand for men and women with this type of training.

The School recognizes, however, that the undergraduate and graduate program at Cornell is only a small part of its broad obligation. There is, therefore, being developed a broad program of extension which will take to the people of the state, in concentrated form, information and knowledge on industrial and labor relations. In selected centers throughout the state, extension courses for workers and for managers are already under way. In the future, materials for adult education programs by other civic groups should be available.

Underpinning both the resident program and the extension program will be a continuing basic research program. In co-operation with other educational institutions and governmental agencies, the School will define and work on the solution of fundamental problems in this area.

This article has attempted to point out the growing significance of industrial and labor relations as a field of study for colleges and universities in the United States. The movement is not, and cannot be considered, an educational fad. It is a field too difficult and too controversial to be well adapted to the game of "follow the leader." It is an area which demands and merits the best educational planning and statesmanship which the nation has to offer. The Cornell experience is in no sense offered as a model for other educational institutions. It is reported here as the sincere attempt which the state of New York and Cornell University have made to aid in meeting an important social issue.

Religion in Higher Education

The Program of Faculty Consultations

By JOHN W. NASON

DURING THE academic year 1945-46 a series of faculty consultations was held on different campuses concerning the responsibility of administrative officers and faculty for religion in their institutions. What place ought religion to occupy? What attitude should be taken toward religious values and the Hebraic-Christian tradition? Where ought responsibility in this matter to rest?

The Edward W. Hazen Foundation, the National Council on Religion in Higher Education, and the American Council on Education agreed to sponsor as an experiment a program of faculty and administrative conferences to explore these questions. Consultants were selected, and a limited number of institutions were invited to participate. The purpose of these explorations was in part to discover how religion is actually treated on different types of campuses, how, i. e., the problems are viewed and what concern is actually felt by members of the administration and faculty; in part to discuss frankly and informally the responsibility of the institution and its constituent groups. It would be disingenuous to suggest that the participants were strictly neutral in their attitudes. On the other hand, it would be a mistake to assume a merely missionary purpose. The faculty visitors may hold strong views on the nature of institutional responsibility. Their function, however, was to discuss and explore this responsibility with like-minded people—like-minded in the sense of being equally concerned with the ends of higher education.

Before reporting some of the results of this experiment, it might be well to glance briefly back over those currents of thought which have been largely responsible for the present situation. Up to the middle of the nineteenth century there was no serious question of the prominent role of religion in the curriculums and in the life of American colleges and uni-

versities. Its position reflected the importance of religion in the culture of the time. In the second half of the nineteenth century, however, a number of developments brought about a gradual decline in the importance of religion in education.

One such factor was the dubious extension of the doctrine of the separation of church and state to the separation of religion and education. Perhaps one should say the separation of religion and public education, for it was Horace Mann's determination to keep the public schools of Massachusetts free from *sectarian* control that gave the impetus to the present exclusion of religious teaching from so many of the elementary and secondary school systems of the country. Under the same banner of separation of church and state, many state legislatures and some state constitutions have forbidden the teaching of religion within state universities or at least the support of such teaching with state funds. While private schools and colleges have been free to continue religious instruction in general and denominational doctrines in particular, the trend in this century among the better-known colleges and universities has been away from the propagation of sectarian faith and even from religious teaching in general. One might cite not only the number of institutions which have become legally nonsectarian, but perhaps more important the decline in religious observance and in the emphasis on instruction in the Christian tradition.

A second factor of even greater influence has been the decline of interest in *theological dogma*. The rise of the modern scientific account of the universe has destroyed many old beliefs and with them the sense of theological urgency of a period when salvation depended upon what one believed about the origin of the world, the nature of God and of man, and the probabilities of heaven and hell. For all practical purposes, science has replaced religion as the source upon which good, evil, and human destiny depend. Accordingly, it is the focus of man's attention. I am not contending that scientific knowledge has driven out religious superstition as chemistry drove out

alchemy, though there are not a few today who would accept this conclusion. The modern view of the world—which is in large part the work of modern science—does make impossible many of the older religious beliefs. Man's happiness does appear to depend less on an inscrutable deity and more on his (scientific) control over nature and himself. The confusion and uncertainty, which have attended the dissolution of a pattern of beliefs that ruled men's minds for nearly two millennia, have been reflected in the weakened position of the church as well as in the decline in religious instruction. Indeed, it was only natural that the intellectually minded should feel the difficulties in the older position more quickly and more deeply than those less given to speculation on ultimate issues. With their moral responsibility to teach the truth as they see it, the emphasis in our colleges and universities, private as well as public, has become increasingly secular.

In another and more dubious way science has proved to be the enemy of religion. Some proponents of the scientific method claim that it has a monopoly on human knowledge, that the only truth that is genuine truth is that which is discovered by the scientific method. If this pretentious and dogmatic claim were itself true, then of course there would be no place left for religion which claims to provide an avenue to knowledge that is legitimate and that leads to understanding outside the purview of science.

Distinct from this and yet closely allied to it is the subtle influence of the scientific attitude. One of the great achievements of modern science is its ideal of objectivity and strict neutrality among facts. Science and wishful thinking are at opposite poles. Impressed by the soundness of this position and by the achievements made possible in part by rigid adherence to it, students in other fields have occasionally sought to extend the principle where it had no legitimate application. Of late the criticism has frequently been made that academic scholars in the humanities and social sciences sought, particularly in the period between the two wars, to be objective toward values as the natural scientists were objective toward

facts. This led to a kind of neutrality between right and wrong which at its best became the philosophical doctrine of relativism and at its worst a cult of indifference. How widespread it was it is difficult to say. Happily, it appears to have been a temporary fad that is now largely discredited. Nevertheless, its depressing influence on any teaching about values, human ends, or the insights of religion is obvious; and it undoubtedly played its part in the discrediting of religion as an integral part of higher education.

One final factor deserves mention. In colonial and later periods the minister was likely to be the best-educated and most intelligent member of the community. He was the natural choice both to preside over and to instruct in the colleges of the times. In the second half of the nineteenth century the development of academic scholarship together with the decline in the pre-eminence of religion combined to reduce the level of the minister both as leader in the community and as educator of the young. Departments of religion continued, however, to be filled with ministers whose training and background were all too often inferior to that of their colleagues. Their scholarship was limited, and their pedagogical performance left much to be desired. Other members of the faculty looked skeptically at the teaching of religion as a process of indoctrination by the ignorant rather than of honest instruction by the wise.

It was this situation which led Professor Charles Foster Kent of Yale to found the National Council on Religion in Higher Education in order to provide fellowships for prospective teachers of religion or religiously concerned teachers of other subjects. In this way several hundred men and women have been helped with their graduate work in order that they might teach their subjects with the same intellectual competence and scholarly background as other college and university teachers. The work of the council goes on with increasing effectiveness, the number of qualified teachers of religion today is growing, and scholarship in this field is proving to be as searching, critical, and profound as in any other.

This account cannot be more than a rough sketch of some of the factors which have brought about the present low estate of religion in our colleges and universities and against which the National Council and other agencies have thrown their influence. Some understanding of what has happened and why it has happened is necessary for an appraisal of the present situation. There are signs in many quarters, some of them the most unexpected, that the place of religion is due for re-examination. Higher education is undertaking the most thorough and thoughtful study of its curriculum which this century has yet seen. The roots of the study go back into the dissatisfaction, increasingly apparent during the 1930's, with the accepted pattern of liberal education. Its great impetus, however, came out of World War II which so disrupted the accustomed academic ways that it provided an unusual opportunity for achieving a certain perspective on what education should accomplish and how it could best achieve its ends.

Two features recur again and again in the published statements of proposed revisions of the curriculum. One is the recognition of the need for and value of some common intellectual background for those who claim to be liberally educated. This is the motive behind the various proposals for a basic set of prescribed courses, the "common core" of a general education. This is also the motive for the "integrating" courses whether historical, philosophical, religious, or all three. The growing recognition of the place of the Hebraic-Christian tradition in our culture and the value of the religious world view as a directive force for modern life are in striking contrast to what might be described as the prevailing academic temper of decades past.

The second characteristic which is repeated through the many proposals is the need for emphasis on values and ends. It might with some justice be argued that a liberal education ought always, at peril of not being liberal, to emphasize the ends of human life. But emphasis is a matter of degree, and we have seen that there were historical reasons why, during the first four decades of this century, the emphasis was

slighted. The shock of the depression of the thirties, the clash of rival ideologies leading up to the war, the imperatives of the war itself, all combined to make men realize, outside as well as inside academic halls, that the purposes and ends of human activity are more important than, and logically prior to, the means. Power is perhaps indispensable, but power for what? Money is highly desirable, but money is a means to some end other than itself. The Nazis taught us what fanatical conviction can do. The Russians are demonstrating what single-minded devotion to their own ends can accomplish. Do we have equally potent convictions about our way of life? The importance of educating men and women to go out in the world, not only intellectually equipped to play their parts, but also, and more important, with some concept of the significance of what they must do and with convictions about the values they seek to realize, is overtaking once again the processes of higher education. The place of religion in this process cannot be ignored. It may still be discounted on the basis of some intellectual belief; it may even be attacked as otiose; but it cannot be ignored, for the understanding of the ultimate ends of human life is illumined by religious history as well as by present religious experience and belief.

The Hebraic-Christian tradition is a part of the cultural heritage of Western civilization, and the understanding of that civilization is no more possible without some knowledge of its spiritual ancestry than it would be without some concept of the role of modern science. If for no other reason, this should suffice to justify courses of solid content and scholarship devoted to the Bible, to the development of Christian thought and institutions, and to comparative religion. Furthermore, while it is true that genuine conviction need not spring only from religious belief, for the majority of men and women religion is still the great generator of convictions on ultimate issues. One cannot teach conviction or the importance of conviction as one teaches the law of supply and demand or the binomial theorem. They have to grow out of experi-

ence. What teachers can do is to hold their convictions with honesty and without concealment and thus show their students that such convictions are important.

There are many organizations to promote religious life and behavior among college and university students. Sometimes these operate independently of the institution, sometimes with its full blessing and support. Indeed, there has been a tendency in recent years for colleges and universities to point to the Student Christian Movement, the Newman Club, the Wesley Foundation, chapel exercises, and similar extra-curricular activities and agencies as evidence not only of strong religious interest among the students, but also of the satisfactory way in which the institutions are fulfilling their obligations in this field. All of these extra-curricular religious activities and organizations are valuable so far as they go. The trouble is that they do not go far enough. They cannot go far enough, and the belief that their existence discharges the responsibility of the institution for religion is a major source of weakness. Students who come to college with strong religious convictions will take an active part in one or more of these undergraduate student activities. The majority, however, will unconsciously look to see what the authorities judge to be important. If religion is relegated to the role of a not-too-important side-show, if its part in our intellectual and emotional tradition is ignored, and if the members of the faculty act with indifference, whether deliberate or unconscious, toward those questions of ultimate import which no discipline can escape and on which religion has had much to say, then it is small wonder that a majority of students will go their way, troubled, perhaps, and a little uneasy in the absence of answers, upon the assumption that religion does not matter.

The program of faculty consultations on religion is designed to explore in more detail what is being done, what can be done, and what ought to be done. The sponsoring agencies appointed a steering committee consisting of J. Seelye Bixler, president of Colby College; Paul J. Braisted, program director of the Hazen Foundation; Victor L. Butterfield, pres-

ident of Wesleyan University; J. Hillis Miller, associate commissioner, University of the State of New York; George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education; and John W. Nason, president of Swarthmore College and of the National Council on Religion in Higher Education.

From the start it was decided to limit the number of participating institutions. This was a practical necessity. The program was highly experimental. It was desirable to include different types of institution, though as will be seen shortly, the majority in the first year were private liberal arts colleges. We were not sure of the response, nor were we certain of the number of consultants available. About thirty invitations were extended. The response was far more enthusiastic than the committee had dared hope, only one of those institutions originally invited indicating a lack of interest. As it turned out, the real problem has been to find enough qualified consultants or visitors to handle the flood of requests which came in as a result of the initial invitations. It was obviously important that the consultants should be men and women with full faculty standing and recognition, that they should be sympathetic to the purposes of the venture, and that they should be at home in the philosophical and religious issues which were bound to come up for critical discussion.

All in all, during the academic year 1945-46 nineteen colleges and universities were visited. They were: Beloit, Brown, Bryn Mawr, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Cornell, Dartmouth, Denison, Lawrence, Mills, Occidental, Pasadena Junior College, Pomona, Reed, Rockford, Scripps, Syracuse, University of Iowa, University of Oregon, Wesleyan. Four consultants took part in the program: George F. Thomas, professor of religious thought at Princeton and fellow of the National Council, Theodore M. Greene, formerly professor of philosophy at Princeton and now at Yale, William E. Hocking, professor emeritus of philosophy at Harvard, and Edwin E. Aubrey, president of Crozer Theological Seminary and fellow of the National Council, formerly professor of Christian theology and ethics at the University of

Chicago. The average length of time spent on each campus was three days. A generous grant from the Edward W. Hazen Foundation covered the office expenses and modest honorariums for the consultants. Each institution was asked to contribute \$50 to a travel pool, which met the cost of traveling.

Only one of the nineteen institutions visited reported dissatisfaction. The others expressed varying degrees of appreciation and indebtedness. In some cases the reaction was one of enthusiasm, and in two instances the consultants were invited back at the institution's own initiative. The committee sought in advance to make the visits as profitable as possible by asking each president to appoint some member of the faculty to be chairman of a local committee to make arrangements and see that the consultant had an opportunity to discuss religion with the appropriate and influential members of the faculty. It was made clear that the consultant was coming to talk with administration and faculty members and not to address the students, although appearance at chapel or before a student religious group was permissible if it did not conflict with the primary purpose of the visit. Needless to say, the arrangements varied from one campus to another, and the success of the visit depended in large part on the way in which arrangements were made. The experience of the first year has indicated that it is highly desirable for the consultant to speak before as large a faculty group as possible in his first appearance. He can then more easily follow this up with consultations with small groups and special committees responsible for the curriculum. Much depends upon the interest of the president. In the few instances where he was absent or had failed to appoint a strong faculty committee, the consultations were less effective than they might otherwise have been.

The consultants reported that, while the degree of interest in religion varied considerably from one institution to another, the teaching of religion was inadequate in nearly every instance. This is in no sense a reflection upon the members of

the faculty who teach such courses; on the contrary, the consultants reported almost unanimously their high regard for the instruction in religion and for the quality of the courses. The difficulty lies in the amount of religious instruction available. In many cases they pointed out that those responsible for courses in religion are overworked and consequently unable to offer the variety that seems desirable. It is not altogether surprising to discover that the provision made in college and university budgets for the teaching of religion is inadequate.

Another conclusion which all consultants brought away from their visits was that in many institutions the majority of the faculty with whom they talked are either hostile to or indifferent toward religion. This attitude might have been suspected, but it is perhaps as well to have first-hand corroboration of so unhappy a situation. In some few instances the hostility appears to stem from a low opinion of the scholarship and academic standing of teachers of religion. In most cases, however, it is the fear of indoctrination. It was pointed out, quite rightly, that an effective teacher of religion needs some personal conviction on the issues he is discussing, and then wrongly concluded that such conviction invalidated the quality of the teaching. Teachers of literature, of philosophy, of the various social sciences need to have convictions in their fields if they are to teach effectively. The only criticism which would be valid would arise if they deliberately presented only part of the facts or one side of their subject with the intention of making converts through ignorance of the alternatives. The same can be said of religion. Not only is it on the same footing as the other disciplines in this respect, but the majority of present teachers of religion are as competent and honest as their colleagues.

While reports were received by the committee from the institutions visited and from the consultants on their experiences, no official recommendations are as yet contemplated. In many instances, the president asked for a copy of any report made by the visitor. Where no request was made, the report has occasionally been sent to the president, especially

if it contained information and comments which the committee felt the administration might like to have. It is fully recognized that there is no one solution to the issues raised, and that the diversity of American institutions of higher learning not only permits but requires a diversity of solutions. Here again it is important to bear in mind that the program is one of discussion and consultation, carried on with the belief that such discussion is good and will have its own results in the thinking and attitudes of those who take part.

The program of consultations will continue during the present academic year. The requests for visits already exceed the committee's ability to supply consultants. For this reason, the practice of inviting selected institutions to participate will be maintained. In this way a wider variety of colleges and universities may be included. This should not be interpreted to exclude inquiries from institutions vitally interested,¹ but it must constitute a warning that a large-scale program is not yet possible—or desirable until further trial has been made.

The proper place and treatment of religion in our educational system are two of the pressing problems for the United States. The present investigation is restricted to colleges and universities. Their problems differ from those of the elementary and secondary schools. It is perhaps important to repeat that no one solution will suffice. As the character of liberal education, and for that matter of vocational education as well, is studied and curriculums are undergoing profound revision, religion must come in for more attention than it has received for the past seventy-five years. It is the hope of the committee that its program of faculty consultations may contribute to the thoughtful consideration of the issues and the constructive solution of the problem.

¹ Requests for further information should be addressed to William W. McKee, executive secretary of the program, in care of the Edward W. Hazen Foundation, 400 Prospect Street, New Haven, Connecticut.

A New Field for Scientists

By HARRY C. BAUER

UNDOUBTEDLY, SCIENCE LIBRARIANS derive more satisfaction from assisting research workers in locating elusive information than from any other work they do. This is reference and research work. It varies all the way from simple and sometimes trivial fact-finding to intensive searching for data which will be of real use to society. Those who enjoy radio quiz programs would find pleasure in locating quotations and answering other elementary questions. They would also enjoy working on advanced reference problems once they learned the requisite skills. There is, for instance, great satisfaction in assisting engineers. Some years ago a bridge across the Tennessee River had to be raised seventeen feet. Only a combination of unusual conditions would permit raising a large bridge this distance. By checking literature on applicable engineering practice, librarians found ideas for completing the job at a considerable saving of money.

A technical librarian copes with such problems repeatedly. He also serves to bridge the gap between various fields of knowledge. An aircraft manufacturer constructing passenger planes wanted to determine the best size of "bucket" seats. His workmen knew how to make the seats but not how to calculate the proper size. A library provided requisite anthropological data for the solution of this problem. The technical librarian also serves frequently as liaison between professions. A crew of foresters once erected a series of check dams to stop erosion on a steep hillside. Forestry supervisors complimented the workers for the neat job accomplished. After a few weeks, the rains came. The check dams were washed out in a hurry. This puzzled the foresters. They looked the matter up in their library without success. Then they informed a technical librarian of their predicament. He offered them engineering handbooks containing descriptions of cushion pools and the hydraulic jump. He also introduced them to

engineers who were conversant with methods for installing permanent check dams. Thus he not only bridged the gap between two subject fields but also acted as liaison between the professions of forestry and engineering. Such are the pleasures of the reference librarian.

The steps taken in assembling the collections which a reference librarian utilizes afford interesting positions for technical librarians. The collections must be managed. The management of a library is like the administration of any business, involving personnel work, maintenance, and budgetary supervision. In addition to these functions, however, it entails a knowledge of book collections, their acquisition, classification, cataloguing, housing, and utilization. Administration would appeal to those who like to work with people and enjoy running a business.

Interesting careers are provided in the specialties, too: book purchasing is a splendid field for people who like to evaluate books; classification and cataloguing appeal to those with a scholarly bent and methodical, logical minds; those with an inclination for practical work can turn to maintenance and housing of collections. There are a host of other side lines in librarianship, such as library planning and construction, binding and preservation of books, abstracting, translating, microphotography, photostating, and library cost analysis, which make the field practically unlimited in possibilities for those who would become science librarians.

There are opportunities of another kind in the improvement of existing methods and the development of new procedures. For instance, libraries use cataloguing and classification systems that have endured for almost a century. Yet every librarian recognizes that changes and modifications are desirable if not absolutely necessary. Newcomers to the field need not fear that everything has been done, leaving no new fields to conquer. And even if everything had been done, future workers could console themselves with the fact that nothing is done, finally and right. There is not now and never was a perfectly run library. Furthermore, there are problems

with which librarians have coped, but not successfully. Men with daring, curiosity, and lively imaginations have made proposals which should attract new recruits and arouse their enthusiasm.

In the future we are assured there will be many new libraries established. This will be true particularly in the special-library field where there will be much call for persons with scientific and technological backgrounds. Every large corporation or government agency carrying on research will require library specialists. A rubber company will need librarians with training in chemistry and rubber technology as well as skill in library practice. Stirred by a report to the President by Dr. Vannevar Bush, director of the Office of Scientific Research and Development, the Congress has for consideration a broad program for "Science, the Endless Frontier." Inauguration of this program will result in expanded activities for libraries and new types of libraries which will serve to reduce the extraneous work of the scientist.

The shortage of trained librarians with scientific and technological backgrounds is particularly great. Actually, there has never been a sufficient supply of library specialists in science and technology. The reason for this is that most men and women who have become librarians in the past were students of literature, history, language, or possibly social science. Through necessity, many of them were drafted to administer technological collections.

Today, however, there is an over-all shortage of all types of librarians. This, together with the expansion of need for personnel with scientific backgrounds is more pronounced than ever. Figures published by the American Library Association reflect a shortage of approximately 2,500 librarians. The association believes that there will be a need for 20,000 new recruits during the next six years. All students entering college who intend to major in such subjects as biology, chemistry, mathematics, physics, engineering, and the other applied arts should consider library service in these fields. Technologists, vocational counselors, parents, and teachers should know of

the opportunities in the library field and of the urgent need for specialists in science and technology.

Librarianship is useful to mankind. In making the printed word available, the librarian unlocks the knowledge of the past so that it can be used as a guide to the future. This is especially valuable in the fields of science and technology where new developments and inventions inevitably grow out of previous accomplishments. No longer does society expect research workers to enter their laboratories and dream up things that have never been thought of before; the days of alchemy and magic are gone. The modern scientist knows how to rely upon the past. Seeking the help of a librarian before starting a new undertaking, the research worker reads the literature on his subject to assure himself of what has already been done, thereby benefiting from progress already made and avoiding duplication of effort. In spite of the cloak of secrecy surrounding it, we may be certain that the men instrumental in the development of the atomic bomb, for example, utilized library resources before setting up the elaborate and costly paraphernalia for the production of plutonium and for atomic fission. The antecedents of those investigations reach back to 400 B.C.

Man is the only animal endowed with the ability to record his experiences for the use of future generations. The primary function of librarianship is to make this accumulated record available for use. It seems that men have always striven to build on the foundation of the past. Unfortunately, scientists of old were not always able to read records of past investigation before starting an undertaking. Sometimes no record existed; when one did exist, it was likely to be unavailable, except in one inaccessible library.

The classic example, however, of what happens when existing literature is not thoroughly canvassed is found in the loss of more than a generation of progress in the field of genetics when Mendel's rules governing hybrids did not come to the attention of other scientists working on heredity. Because of inadequate library facilities in Mendel's time, published re-

search was dead and buried unless it received immediate attention. Mendel's findings were published in an obscure German scientific magazine in 1866. In 1900, three scientists, Hugo De Vries, Carl Correns, and Erich Tschermak, published reports confirming the work of Mendel. Each, however, believed himself to be an innovator until the chance discovery that Mendel had anticipated them by many years. Thus, while Mendel's work was resuscitated, three capable scientists had labored in vain and scientific development was delayed at least a generation.

The modern scientist is equally hard put to keep abreast of the times. The massive accumulation of research cannot be grasped, let alone remembered. Even for the most conscientious, it is impossible to keep up to date by reading. The most significant achievements are likely to be lost in the welter of inconsequential publications coming off the presses. As specialization extends, the difficulty increases. More and more reliance must be placed upon the librarian to steer the course through the maze of printed matter, a task calling for highly trained personnel and the finest bibliographic tools.

The power of summoning the past is not the only duty of librarianship. The developments of science are of universal importance. Under modern living conditions our people have more and more leisure time at their disposal. Reading is one of the best ways for profitably utilizing this time. Here the science librarian has a particularly important role to play in contributing to the rapidly growing interest in adult education.

Society is beset by still one other problem of vital concern to the science-technology librarian. There is a general belief that new inventions and advances in science have come so quickly that spiritually and mentally we are not able to keep abreast of them. Some even assert, "Modern man is obsolete." While this is not at all the case, something must be done to help the scientist recognize the social significance of his achievements. Scientists can afford no longer to live in ivory towers and shun social or political problems. The librarian, by bringing current social and political thought to the scientist,

can assist in arousing new interests and a wider point of view among those who make the mold for the "shape of things to come."

Robert Louis Stevenson once counseled his literary brethren, "Whatever be your calling and however much it brings you in the year, you could still, you know, get more by cheating." The salary situation is not as bad as all that. Although librarianship has long been an underpaid profession, times are changing. Today, a librarian can live by his profession; salaries have climbed higher and higher, now comparing favorably with those paid in other educational professions which have related purposes and require like preparation.

Though library salaries for technical and scientific specialists in the different geographical areas vary considerably, beginning salaries currently quoted range from \$1,800 to \$2,400. Advancement is not rapid but usually comes to those who demonstrate ability and show initiative. A fortunate few occasionally reach a peak salary of \$10,000 or \$12,000. Normally, however, the average for experienced specialists ranges from \$2,500 to \$6,000. Most special libraries pay higher salaries than do public or university libraries. Advancement in special libraries, furthermore, is not based on fixed salary schedules. Thus, the individual can gain recognition by the performance of superior work. A special librarian is a part of the staff of the establishment in which he works. If he has ability to sell the library service so that it makes material contributions to the work of his organization, he is usually rewarded materially as well as spiritually.

For a professional librarian the minimum training is one year beyond the regular academic four-year college course leading to the B.A. or B.S. degree. A student who knows at the beginning of his college training that he wishes to be a librarian should choose his subjects with care. If he wishes to be a librarian in an engineering or technological library, he can take a four-year engineering course of his own choice including two or more years of a foreign language (preferably German or French) as an elective or extra. If he can fit in a

course on economics and another on the social sciences, so much the better; the broader his education, the better librarian he will be. Upon graduation, he begins his one-year curriculum in library science. The material covered in the curriculum generally includes administration, cataloguing and classification, book selection, reference work, history of books and printing, bibliography, and other selected courses on binding and the mechanical handling of different types of publications. Many students work part time in college libraries or laboratories.

Upon completion of the library school curriculum, the graduate is ready for his first library position. His library school will usually be in a position to place him or assist him in finding a satisfactory opening. If, however, he decides that he wants more schooling, he has two choices—either to seek a higher degree in his subject specialty, be it chemistry, engineering, biology, or another subject; or to study for a higher degree in librarianship. The University of California, the University of Chicago, Columbia University, the University of Illinois, and the University of Michigan offer advanced work in librarianship. The usual requirement is a bachelor's degree, *plus the completion of the basic course in library science*, with or without practical experience. The graduate student is permitted to specialize in some field of library science and to complete research on some special topic or problem. Just as in other schools, the graduate programs are individualized and of indefinite duration. The degrees of M.S. in L.S., M.A. in L.S., or M.S. are granted by all these schools. In addition, at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, the doctor's degree is awarded for advanced work. For detailed information about library school curriculums, students should secure the school catalogues.

Whether a student takes his advanced degree in the subject field or in library science does not greatly matter. People have succeeded on either basis. But one may take for granted that added schoolwork qualifies the librarian for a better position.

For success in the library field the same personal qualities that are needed in other professions are requisite—common

sense, breadth of vision, imagination, initiative, friendliness, administrative ability, a liking for books, and a respect for the printed word. But the prospective librarian should not necessarily be what is known as "bookish." Interest in people and service is just as important as knowledge of books. Librarianship is an excellent life-work for people who have the educator's instinct and the desire to work with people for the good of all. Mental curiosity, quickness of comprehension, a sense of humor, accuracy and resourcefulness—all the qualities which make a good laboratory worker—are desirable.

In fact, soon we may expect to have two sorts of scientists: those who work in the laboratory and those who work in the library. They will supplement each other and be of equal importance. Aptitude and taste will determine which of these posts a worker will hold.

Training in Understanding

By J. STEWART BURGESS

AN OBSERVANT CHINESE delegate to the New York meeting of the Security Council of U.N. in commenting on the tempestuous scenes that followed the opening of the session remarked, "Discussion started too soon. The delegates had had no opportunity to get acquainted before they took up the issues that have divided them."

During the war years many of our governmental agencies endeavored to equip their personnel with "area orientation," in order that they could most effectively, smoothly, and usefully perform their function among peoples whose cultural setting differed from their own. The OWI, OSS, the Army and Navy Intelligence, the Red Cross, all had, for longer or shorter periods, courses designed to bring about better understanding, on the part of soldier, sailor, nurse, doctor, or Red Cross worker, of the people among whom they were to work. Unfortunately, the orientation of the great mass of the American GI's or sailors and their officers, notably those operating in the Pacific theater, was in many cases so sketchy that no real understanding of Orientals was achieved. This resulted in enmities unnecessarily incurred, and many have returned thoroughly disliking the peoples of China, Burma, or of the Pacific isles.

Since an increasing number of Americans are likely to travel or reside in the Pacific area, it may be of interest to those concerned with more fruitful and harmonious relations between peoples to sketch an experimental attempt to prepare an international group, predominantly American, for successful adjustment to Chinese life.

Clearly the task of the Training Center of UNRRA was not to improve the technical skills of the 504 (304 men and 200 women) welfare workers, physicians, nurses, engineers, agriculturists, mechanics, accountants, secretaries, transportation specialists, and administrators recruited for service in

China from September 1945 to April 1946. These men and women were selected from among many thousands of applicants because they were already highly trained and thoroughly competent in their fields of specialization. Less than 10 percent, however, had ever been in China, and an even smaller proportion had lived there long enough to have a good understanding and appreciation of Chinese life and culture. In addition to the predominantly American group, Canadians, Latin Americans, and a few Europeans were among the trainees.

A few of these initiates were at first inclined to doubt the value of training. "I'm a physician and know my medicine; why study about China?" "People are pretty much the same everywhere. If I can get on in the good old U.S.A., I can anywhere." "Let's get out as soon as possible. I'll pick up knowledge of China when I get there." "There's no need for me to study the language. I can get an interpreter, as merchants in Shanghai have done for generations." Such remarks were not uncommon during the first day or two.

In a surprisingly short time the antagonism of this minority vanished. The sheer interest of the complicated and dynamic Chinese scene and their early realization of the vast amount of practical knowledge required to adjust to a culture so totally different soon transformed reluctance into enthusiastic participation.

The wide range in training, occupation, age, experience, nationality, intellectual aptitude, and motivation for international civil service increased both the difficulty and the challenge of this unique project in adult education. However different the backgrounds, nationality, and professional interest, this group had certain things in common. They were going to do a job in China with little or no previous understanding of its people, history, social institutions, customs. To do their job well, no matter how technical its nature, some understanding of this alien people was essential.

UNRRA training of China-bound personnel started informally with a small seminar group in May 1945. The more formal program began September 24, 1945, and closed April

30, 1946. Although differing somewhat in conception and organization, the China training program had the advantage of being the last of a series of training programs for UNRRA field staff. UNRRA's major educational venture began with the preparation of over two thousand employees for work in Europe and the Near East. This earlier course had been organized by Frank Munk, director of UNRRA training; Harold E. Snyder, his associate, and later his successor; and Hertha Kraus of Bryn Mawr College. The experience and continued guidance of these persons was most helpful in the China training.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAM

Three preliminary days' work was centered on the principles and organization of UNRRA and introduced the broad sweep of Chinese history and the essentials of Chinese geography. From the very start the problem of the adjustment of the westerner to the Chinese was emphasized. Discussions brought out the traits of character and ways of behavior of westerners—especially Americans—which Chinese quite generally do not like and the things about the Chinese that we misunderstand or dislike. The domineering westerner, the boastful American, the fidgety and overhasty Occidental, the competitive aggression of the hustling go-getter, the man who, lacking composure, resorts to force and violence—these characteristics the Chinese especially resent. Those relatively little influenced by Western contacts also frequently misunderstand public manifestations of affection between men and women. On the other hand, many Chinese traits are misunderstood or disliked by westerners. The excessive deference to the older generation, the strength of family obligation so often rivaling public interest, the capacity for compromise, the inability to understand the westerner's stress on legal technicalities and rights, the fatalism which can so easily appear as unfeeling indifference to suffering, the commission system called "squeeze," and finally that universal regard for face. These and other important differences were mentioned at the outset and later elaborated.

The heart of the orientation was a four-weeks—later reduced to three-weeks—cycle of discussions led by leading Chinese officials, educators, or businessmen and by westerners who had lived in China and made that country their life-study. This group of authorities, each of whom spoke once or more at the Center, totaled fifty-five and represented virtually every field of social, economic, and political activity. The Center was fortunate in securing the services of ranking authorities. The principal training officer, the author of this paper, had lived in China many years as educator and social worker. My associate, Howard Sollenberger, was brought up in China and had had several years of famine-relief experience in that country. Both of us speak Chinese and were regular discussion leaders in the program.

The dangers of too much repetition and lack of continuity, always present when such an array of outside talent is brought in, were carefully guarded against by defining clearly in advance the role of each speaker and discussion leader, thorough briefing, and by having regular members of the staff chair each meeting and summarize the discussion.

Following the presentation of geography and of the broad sweep of history down to the modern period, the three-week cycle continued with the forms of Chinese thought and relationship inherited from the past and the basic institutional pattern of old China—the family, the village, the guild, agricultural life and organization. One meeting on the impact of the West on China with the invasion of soldier and diplomat, merchant, and missionary was followed by discussions of the transformation of modern China, industrial and commercial change, educational revolution and intellectual renaissance, social changes effected by the missionary, political evolution, and the rise of the Kuomintang.

With this groundwork laid, the development and results of the Sino-Japanese war were covered. Discussion of economic and social change due to this conflict followed. Present trends and movements identified as political, economic, and social were then presented. The structure and organization of the national government were explained. The nature and

significance of the present political conflict in China was approached by different speakers from different angles. This was followed by discussions of China's international relationships. Talks were informal and ample time was allowed for discussion.

Each member of the Center on the first day was furnished with a kit of printed and mimeographed material which contained, in addition to data on UNRRA, material on the history, geography, social, and economic problems of China. A small but well-selected library of books, pamphlets, and current magazines on China located at the Center made further reading convenient and accessible.

A series of meetings on various aspects of the westerner's adjustments in China covered the hazards to health and ways to avoid contagion and infection, the westerner's use of leisure time and the possibilities of developing hobbies in the fields of art, the theater, or by collecting things Chinese. Sessions on social habits and customs dealt with a wide range of information, from how and when to drink tea to how to deal fairly and happily with your cook. Early in each cycle, Stella Fisher Burgess, the wife of the principal training officer, traced from her own experience in a talk called "From Observer to Participant" the gradual process by which a Western woman eventually is able to identify herself with the interests and activities of the Chinese.

To help trainees understand the processes of adjustment between peoples of different cultural backgrounds, two psychiatrists and an anthropologist contributed valuable insights. Dr. Y. T. Wong, resident physician of the Psychiatric Hospital of the University of Tennessee, narrated in a fascinating manner how Chinese peasants respond to disaster and suffering and how the average Chinese appraises and reacts to westerners. Another psychiatrist, Dr. George N. Rains, of the neuropsychiatric division of the U. S. Naval Hospital near Washington, drawing on his observations of how Navy personnel adjust to or crack up under conditions of strain in the setting of a different civilization, gave valuable advice on how to keep emotionally healthy under hitherto un-

experienced and critical conditions. The process whereby a westerner gets acquainted with and comes to an appreciative understanding of the ways of foreign peoples was vividly presented by Dr. Ruth Benedict, well-known anthropologist of Columbia University.

No attempt will be made here to outline the thorough overview of the work of the various activities of UNRRA presented by the heads of the technical division and the detailed study of the progress and problems of the China program of that agency. This was a substantial part of the work of the Training Center, but we are here concerned with area orientation.

One important aspect of preparation is an introduction to the Chinese language, despite the extremely short time allotted to training. Five week-day mornings, each week, the members spent two hours on the introduction to spoken Chinese. The first week under Professor C. P. Sha, experienced language teacher formerly of the University of California, was devoted to mastering the sounds and tones of the language. After this careful drill the textbook of *Spoken Chinese* prepared by the U. S. Army was made use of in small groups instructed by Chinese-speaking teachers familiar with the newer methods of presenting spoken language. Diligent study including constant use of the phonograph records based on the text soon dissipated any fear of the language, and trainees rapidly attained a knowledge of useful words and phrases and even an insight into the structure of a language. For some this language study continued after the three-week course. While waiting for boat or plane, they kept at this study, and for those who went by sea classes on shipboard were arranged. Classes were continued in China.

While some made no progress in language, largely through lack of interest and application, many arrived in the new and strange land able to ask directions, make purchases, and deal with servants and had the satisfaction of manifesting to the Chinese people at least a beginning knowledge. Letters from China have spoken of the great practical value of this beginning, of how a few words eased the adjustment in tight

places and made them feel much more at home. The basis for further study was also laid.

IMPORTANCE OF ATTITUDES

At the Training Center the social life and relationships of the members contributed to the educational process of training for life in China. Direct participation in the administration of the Center was secured by means of a members' council, composed of two elected representatives of each class. Panels composed partly or entirely of trainees were organized. At one such panel the question was introduced, "What is your most frequent apprehension as you look forward to going to China?" There followed very frank statements such as, "I feel ignorant of conditions. I am like a sponge, getting in every little bit of knowledge I can find. It is rather overwhelming to think of living in such a different kind of civilization." "I have some apprehension about going to a distant point alone." "As I study the greatness of Chinese culture, I sometimes wonder what we really have to offer. Frank discussions such as we have had with Dr. Leonard Hsu help allay our fears." Personal acquaintance with able Chinese arranged by the Center lessened such apprehension. A weekly tea given by the earlier members to welcome each new class enabled them to become better acquainted and also have the chance for informal contacts with guests, both Chinese and westerners who had lived in China.

When the main emphasis of an educational program is the mental and emotional reorientation of westerners so that they may harmoniously and effectively blend into the life and ways of a foreign scene, it is difficult to appraise accurately the results of such a training course. A few indications of what was learned, what attitudes were altered, and in what direction, have come to hand and will be briefly summarized.

Sixteen members of two of the earliest classes were asked, "What attitudes and ways of thinking which the Chinese have should the westerner be aware of in dealing with them?"

Some of the written replies were:

In making changes, move by suggestion rather than by saying this or that is wrong or should be corrected.

Necessary to retain an open mind constantly and not jump to conclusions, especially upon arrival. It is important that the westerner should not expect to be able to force his viewpoint on the Chinese. It is not a good idea for the westerner to inject himself into Chinese politics without thoroughly understanding the various viewpoints.

Never tell a Chinese in the presence of another that he is at fault. If necessary, use a third person. Be subtle in your suggestions for any changes.

Never reprimand a Chinese in public or cause him in any way to lose face.

Be polite and not boastful.

Western ways are not necessarily superior. Be unbiased, openminded, understanding of the Eastern point of view.

We should consider the Chinese our intellectual and social equals. Our conduct is as strange and foreign to them as theirs is to us. A tolerant outlook is essential.

Suggest ways of doing things, rather than insisting on methods of procedure. Do not be arbitrary; find solutions that provide a compromise so that both parties may be satisfied. Keep one's sense of humor near the surface. Be relaxed. Do not press. Do not be tense.

They dislike western aggressiveness.

Recognize the values of Chinese culture: courtesy, respect for the individual, dignity, social democracy, and freedom from race prejudice.

Remember to have patience and not to hurry them.

EVALUATION

At the beginning of the three-day series of introductory meetings members were asked to answer ninety-one questions, twelve concerned with the organization and principles of UNRRA and the others with China. By weighting several of the more difficult questions on China, the final scores roughly assigned to Chinese material was 90 percent of the grade and to UNRRA material 10 percent. Of the questions on China,

twelve dealt with geography, forty-nine with history, politics, social conditions, and general information, and eighteen with the attitude and customs of the Chinese. The paper called for an answer of true or false or for the completion of sentences. Two hundred thirty-four took this examination. Several entire classes comprising ninety-four persons were asked the same questions at the completion of their course.

To many the attempt to answer these questions brought about a somewhat rude awakening. Able physicians, engineers, or social workers would make a grade of 30 or 40 percent regarding a land and civilization hitherto unknown. Some of these reported that taking the test sharpened their interest in adding to their knowledge about China.

The average grade of the ninety-four persons on their first examination was 56.6 percent correct, while the average of the second set of replies was 82.8 percent, an improvement of 26.2 percent. In several individual cases the change was as great as 40 to 50 percent.

Space does not permit reproduction of the entire examination, but the following samples will serve to illustrate the learning which took place.

In the beginning only nineteen out of the ninety-four trainees knew that T. V. Soong was Prime Minister of China, but fifty-seven learned that fact during the training period; twenty-seven learned for the first time that the United States once had extraterritorial rights in China; nineteen learned that miscegenation of Caucasian and Oriental races does not produce inferior offspring; twenty people greatly overestimated at the outset the average size of Chinese farms (a basic fact of vital importance in Chinese economic and social life) but one was still ignorant of the truth at the end of the course; twenty learned that polygamy is not the typical pattern of Chinese family life; while forty-five learned that the guild tradition of old China was noncompetitive.

On finishing the course of study, members were given an appraisal form to fill in anonymously which encouraged advice and criticism concerning the content and organization of the course. Criticisms revealed duplication of material and poorly

chosen or prepared speakers despite all the precautions taken. However, the appraisals were overwhelmingly favorable, particularly toward the area orientation.

To the question, "Did the course as a whole contribute to a feeling of preparedness for the job ahead of you?" a nurse who had grown up in China replied: "I learned more about China in four weeks than I learned in several years of living there." One urged that similar training be a part of the planning for U.N. and its subgroups. Another stated, "No one can say we haven't been told or prepared."

A major UNRRA official already experienced in European operations returned to prepare for service in China, wrote spontaneously to the director of training, "The training program . . . increased employee confidence in UNRRA. It is not haphazard . . . or dogmatic, for student participation is encouraged."

A social worker writing in *The Compass* said: "Threading through the whole experience was the deepening acquaintance with people whose experience and expertness was different from our own. We began to see and hear how the problems presented to us in classes appeared to our fellow-workers whose responsibilities were to be so different from ours. We had a chance to tell how we thought what we knew could be utilized. It became important to each of us, at one time or another, to show some other member of our class how our knowledge would serve, and to learn from people who knew things we didn't know how their skills would be put to work."

Just before leaving San Francisco for China an experienced social worker wrote: "To me the value of the training course lay not in the actual information and facts given in the various lectures, but rather in giving us an attitude toward China, a land, to us, of strange culture, and toward the basic relationships between UNRRA and CNRRA and the goals of the total program. I am confident my own work will be affected constructively by the training program."

The director and assistant director of UNRRA in China expressed their conviction that personnel were more effective because of the training received.

Adequate appraisal of this brief educational effort is impossible because the objectives of the training are largely in the realm of intangibles, and because the records of the work and achievements of those trained are not yet in. To modify the attitudes of a group of Americans in a brief three and one-half weeks is not an easy task. Many of these highly trained experts were not only totally ignorant of things Chinese when they arrived at the Center but also they possessed characteristics and attitudes sure to make them personally unacceptable to the Chinese people. Some, overly assertive, with highly competitive motivation, frank and direct, occasionally with a naïve desire of self-display, were products of a culture built on aggressive competition in which, to use Veblen's expression "conspicuous consumption" is frequently the mark of preferment. Forceful and energetic, reared among a pioneering people, they are likely to go head-first into new situations and to seek to conquer difficulties by forceful direct assault. As the Chinese put it, "Americans use a sledge hammer to pin up a butterfly."

The task of the Center was to modify these attitudes, to lead the members to consider for the first time the problem of relations with a people with other ways and different values, and through the contagious influence of those westerners who knew the Chinese and through personal contact with Chinese themselves, to gain an appreciation of this great people. In the process these Americans reappraised their own values and lost something of the "go-getting" self-assurance which may be an asset in America but which is likely to be their greatest liability in China. Some found the contrast too sharp, the adjustment too difficult to make, and fortunately for themselves and for UNRRA resigned or were dissuaded from going into a situation in which they would have proved misfits.

It is hoped that to those interested in the organization of brief orientation courses for businessmen, government personnel, missionaries, or even casual travelers going abroad, this description of the demonstration made in these seven months at the UNRRA Training Center may be of some value.

The College Study in Intergroup Relations

A Progress Report 1945-46

By LLOYD ALLEN COOK

THE STORY of the College Study is that of a modest effort growing big, a little candle burning. Now, at the start of another year, with a budget several times the initial grant and the prospect of working with twenty or more colleges, we are coming into a position where teacher education can be affected. It can be aided in its own self-initiated trend toward a more functional, more socialized, teacher-training program, one rooted in the realities of group-living. It can be guided toward a greater concern for race in child life, for creedal values, Old World heritages, class-level and rural-urban differences. This is the field of intergroup relations as we now conceive it. What happens here, how we act, what we teach, is a most telling test of our democracy. If Weinreich's *Hitler's Professors* (Yiddish Scientific Institute, New York, 1946) has any lesson for us, it is on this issue.

On these assumptions, we invite critical reactions to our work.¹ We have found little to guide us in the amazing output of writings on intercultural education. We are not a promotional outfit; we are not zealous crusaders for a neglected cause. We are not miracle workers. We are educators working with educators on educational problems under such

¹For related articles, see "Current Approaches to Intergroup Education," *New York State Education*, XXXIII (1945), 207-9; "Teaching Teachers Cooperative Action," *25th Yearbook*, American Association of Teachers Colleges, Oneonta, N.Y., pp. 5-51; "A Project Director's Role," *Ohio Valley Sociologist*, XII (1946), 1-4; (with Elaine Forsyth) "Working with Groups in Classrooms," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, October 1946; (with Paul Harnley, et. al.) *Improving Intergroup Relations in School and Community Life*, North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges (August 1946; 48 pp.; single copy, 25¢; ten or more, 15¢. Address George W. Rosenlof, Lincoln, Neb.).

limitations as this implies. Our approach is a social science approach to current intergroup relations as they affect children—a try, retry—with measured outcomes. We have learned some simple facts about how to do the job, but the tough problems still await solution. One who joins with us now by pointing out shortcomings in our efforts, by suggesting better tactics, will have the satisfaction of helping shape a three-year nationwide project.

AUSPICES, SET-UP

In rereading the statement drawn by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education and submitted for financing, via the American Council on Education, to the National Conference of Christians and Jews, I am impressed anew with the concern of these educators for a united nation, for cooperative thought and action at every level of social-living.

One can imagine the above line of reasoning. We, the people, are a heterogeneous lot, all colors, creeds, and classes. We are a nation of spectacular growth, cataclysmic changes. We are a country at work on our unfinished business, democratizing our way of life. The war shook us up as has no other great crisis. It gave us visions of our strength in unity, our resources, and potentials. War's aftermath has not been pleasant. On a score of fronts—race, labor, religion—we are again torn apart, embattled. We are in our usual state of tension, a condition nowise as unhealthy as might be thought, yet not without dangers, not to be belittled or ignored. Every time one claims a civic right denied to others, the commonweal is endangered. John Donne's bell tolls for us, as well as for others, a thought that can change a life should it ever be grasped in its full essence.

No man is an Iland, intire of it selfe; every man is a peece of the continent, a part of the maine. If a Clod bee washed away by the Sea, Europe is the lesse . . . as if a mannor or thy friend's or thine owne were. Any man's death diminishes me, because *I am involved in Mankinde*; and therefore, never send to me to ask for whom the bell tolls, It tolls for thee.

From this sort of thinking, the next step was inevitable. A society continues itself only through its children, piling on them the cumulative products of all past living. In this acculturation process, teachers have a part to play, and so, with even greater force, *the teachers of teachers*. Here, then, was a critical point of entry, the cutting wedge. Get at the educative process via those who do most to shape its basic contours. Work through colleges and universities and you will reach the nation's classrooms, the nation's children. And so, in the document to which we have referred, we find a clear statement of purpose, namely, "to effect actual changes in practice in the preparation of teachers" in respect to intergroup relations. It is to preservice education that we owe our first allegiance, after which we are free to move as local circumstances may dictate.

There was nothing novel in the way these ideas were put into action. In all, 132 colleges made application to join in the experiment. Many were visited and, by criteria established earlier,² ten were selected. The Boston project could not coordinate its several units, nor could Peabody, in the rush of time, formulate a program, so that both dropped out. Institutions with which we worked were the State College for Teachers at Albany, New York, New Jersey State College at Trenton, Marshall College at Huntington, West Virginia, Milwaukee State Teachers College, Ohio State University, University of Pittsburgh, Wayne University at Detroit, and West Virginia State College near Charleston.

From the outset, we had the notion that one cannot readily talk himself into a new frame of mind in group relations, new feeling tones and management skills. Such changes occur, if at all, in what Dewey calls "the experiencing process," the "doing and undergoing" so common to life outside the school. Our program, therefore, was to be a work program, a series of study-action projects, each initiated by some campus group

² See "Getting the Study Started," *24th Yearbook*, 1945, American Association of Teachers Colleges, Oneonta, N.Y., pp. 42-51.

and designed to make an improvement in teacher education. In so far as practical, each project was to be cooperative in nature, involving college staff members, students, public school officials, social agency heads, church leaders, and townspeople.

Our services to the colleges were of several kinds. First were the visits of the director on a regular travel schedule, with outside consultants called in as needed. Next, college committee chairmen were assembled at central points for three- to five-day work conferences, and a six-week summer workshop was planned. Thirdly, the *College Study Bulletin*,^a a monthly mimeographed issue describing college activities, was mailed out, along with test forms, reprints, and other materials. Finally, small grants-in-aid were made as the need became evident. In return, colleges were asked for no specific commitment. To an amazing extent, they matched our funds on a number of concrete projects and on occasion were able to free committee chairmen from a part of their teaching duties.

Elsewhere we have cited statistics on these activities. For the year, they add up to an impressive total. Thirty-five project groups were formed, directly involving 429 professors, students, school teachers, pupil-leaders, and others. These groups met well over a thousand times. Campus one- to three-day work conferences were common, each showing from fifty to one hundred or so participants. Some colleges staged special events, for instance the Albany statewide Student Conference on Intergroup Relations, with attendance at some sessions of about five thousand. West Virginia State held a workshop on audio-visual aids for Negro and white teachers throughout the state. All colleges used the director of the Study for speeches to the faculty, student assemblies, and community groups. One hundred three such talks were made.

What statistics do not show is the time spent by college com-

^a Now circulated to a mailing list of about 1,000; will be sent free upon request addressed to College Study in Intergroup Relations, Wayne University, 5272 Second Ave., Detroit 1, Mich.

mittee chairmen in keeping the wheels meshing. To them,⁴ and to their deans and presidents, we owe a big debt. All of these persons merit our highest praise.

PURPOSES, VALUES, TECHNIQUES

At Cleveland in February, on invitation of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, college committee chairmen were invited to present a panel discussion of their work. What made that evening difficult was that we had to deal with thirty-five concrete projects, each differing from any other in important particulars. To concretize is hazardous but so, for that matter, is generalization. We shall, however, resort to a little of both, hoping somehow they will mesh into a meaningful whole.

Two-thirds of all projects fell into three areas of teacher education: curriculum study and course changes, student-campus groupings and activities, community surveys and agency experiences. Some projects were as small as teaching a unit to grade school classes; others, for example two college curriculum surveys, involved all, or nearly all, of the faculty. Some were clearly of the study type, that is, what are the facts; others of the action type, what changes can be made. Mainly, however, each project group did something on both these interests.

What, now, can be regarded as common to all of these activities? In our considered judgment, and after reading 1,500 typed pages of reports, the evidence will support a claim to six basic purposes:

1. To understand the pattern of intergroup relations in our country, what it is, how it works, why, with what effects.
2. To study the college-service area, state, and locality in respect to race, creed, social class, immigrant heritages, and rural-urban relations.

⁴ College committee chairmen, in order of the schools as previously named, were Watt Stewart, Bertha Lawrence, Lyell Douthat, Herman Weil, Edgar Dale, W. W. D. Sones, Harold Soderquist, and Grace Woodson. All but two have continued into the second year, Stewart yielding to Margaret Hayes, Douthat to R. Lloyd Deck, in a rotating system.

3. To observe, describe, and measure the operation of the above factors in child life, effects on child groupings and personality.

4. To seek in every way to democratize human relations in classrooms and outside, going as fast as we can and as slow as we must.

5. To teach teachers new viewpoints, skills, and understandings, especially how to manage the group process in the interest of all its members.

6. To involve the community—its schools, agencies, and churches—in the educative process, planning together for the enrichment of all learning experiences.

The chief danger in such listing is that purposes will be read as compulsives imposed on every college. Nothing could be further from our practices. For example, statement 1 suggests the need for a basic orientation, but each college committee, in fact, each project group, worked out its own. It was made acquainted with authorities,⁶ yet only as an aid in developing its own points of view. Again in statement 2, it was not presumed that each college would find all of these factors of equal importance. This decision was up to the college group.

One may read these objectives and still feel some uncertainty regarding their underlying meanings and what we did in definite situations. The need is for a concrete picture; yet no case in our files seems widely representative. The example we have selected comes from the daily "log" of a practice teacher, a fine-arts major working with sixteen eight- to ten-year-old children in a slum area. In the original the log runs to many pages; we have condensed and sharpened a series of incidents.

⁶ Especially Gunnar Myrdal, *The American Dilemma* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1944); W. Lloyd Warner and Paul Lunt, *Social Life of A Modern Community* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941). For an application to education, see Warner, *et al.*, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1944).

TEACHING GROUP UNITY AND ACTION

Big John, age ten, swept the paper houses, the green grass, and flower gardens off the table. He kicked over the land site, knocked down a chair, and stalked out of the room. Hang it all, he was mad, madder than he had been since whipping the punk whose place he had taken as gang leader. . . . Little John, his twin, had warned against the new teacher. "Dumb," Johnny had said, "dumb like a fox!"

Anyhow, it had not been the teacher who had caused all the trouble. No, it had been the gang, his gang, in the workroom now, playing, having fun. Well, it was Saturday morning. . . . It was a fine day and he would have himself a time. He would do . . . what in heck can a guy do without the street corner gang! Big John fell to thinking about his troubles.

On that day, two weeks ago, with all the kids assembled and bug-eyed, the new teacher at the settlement house had given the usual spiel—"group unity," "good living," and so on. Then some stuff on "art," and then "how about a trip to the art gallery, see things." "O.K., O.K.," Big John said and the trip was on. Nobody voted against it; nobody dared even had he wanted.

On the next day, the big trouble started. Would the group like to experiment with some "art work," say build some houses? Again, "O.K." and "why not!" So, alone or in pairs, the Third Street Rockets, and the others, went to work. Houses were made out of papier-mâché and, for a time, everyone kept busy. Then the fun had started—wisecracking, running about, throwing things.

About most of this, Teacher seemed unconcerned, too much so, said Little John, the brain. She cautioned against getting hurt; she put things away and locked up the cabinets. She helped those still at work and, well, went about her business. At lock-up time, she said for everybody to come back in the morning.

Next morning, the group surveyed its houses. Someone asked the teacher what to do with them, and Big John answered. "Do whatever you want, dummy, they're yours, ain't they? Kick 'em over, give 'em away, take 'em home." The teacher had only repeated the question. When people build houses, what *do* they do with them? "Live in 'em," some punk had answered. "Fix 'em up, put 'em on the land." This had started another round of group action.

Mostly, the Rockets scrounged for things, though Teacher had warned against stealing. There was no "land," for example, so they found an

old sandbin, put it on the work table, found some sand, and a housing site came into being. Each kid located his house as he pleased, taking any spot he liked. Big John had gotten around to this a bit late, and every good spot was taken. With a sweep of his arm, he knocked over three or four dwellings. Taking this third of the entire area, he put his house in the center.

Faced with such action, one might guess the teacher's impulsive responses, for no one likes to see a bully taking over. Instead of pinning the little toughie's ears back, thus uniting him with his gang against her, she must have felt the critical nature of the situation, the need for astute planning. To prevent *tedium vitae* from setting in, as in any period of inaction, she suggested that each group member landscape his holdings.

It took the teacher a day or so to get an idea that seemed worth trying. On invitation to inspect the work, I praised the homes, the gardens, and the like. "But hang it all," I said, "something is lacking. The town just doesn't look right, not at all like the place where we live. What is the matter?" Shortly came the kind answer we had expected. "It ain't regular-like. No streets, or nothing."

We had planned at this point to break Big John's domination, to reach in and take hold of the group process. The children did not slap down the streets, re-establishing the old order of dominance. On the contrary, it was agreed to make a study. This was to be a step-off block survey, how far from corner to corner, and Big John appointed himself to see that this was correctly done. We may have helped him a bit to claim this leader position, but mostly it was at his own initiative.

Once the step counts were in, the group figured the proportionate reduction, drew a street plan—the usual checkerboard plan—to scale on a big square of cardboard and cut it out. All of this was done to make the trap really solid, and when it was sprung, as we had hoped, Big John was caught squarely in the middle. A main thoroughfare ran directly through the center of his baronial estate!

John fussed and fumed at first, then wanted to fight a gang member, claiming he had been framed. But here the class as a whole stood tight against him, for "hadn't he made the plan!" Now he was squealing! During all this excitement, the teacher made no accusations, offered no explanation. She simply stood by, as one must in these bitter moments, steadying the group in the action it had to take. This was a fair deal, fairly done, and consequences were binding! It was here that John kicked over the houses and left the room.

Once on the streets, with his gang inside, Big John had nothing to do,

no one to do things with. These children were his companions, his gang. On the next day, an overture came, the "word" that he would consider a "deal" if the teacher were willing. She replied, through the same spokesman, that her responsibility was limited, that it was up to the group, but that she would help out. John's re-entry into the class was effected with some face-saving but, nonetheless, on a basis that this little Fascist understood—majority rule and fair play for all! He had no clear comprehension of what had happened; he had responded to a force with which he was well acquainted, the pull and power of the group.

Few teachers will meet such difficult cases, and, too, no two group-management problems are exactly alike. And yet, on the whole, we have a great deal of evidence on authoritarian, undemocratic behaviors, for children reflect, perhaps exaggerate, the street culture of their habitat. That the above group was a mixed group, some white, some Negro, some of foreign parentage, was not mentioned in the write-up. Contrary to present practice, we do not center attention on the "poor little" deviant, whatever his race, creed, etc. In our approach to intergroup education, we tend to emphasize *participation*. Who joins up? Who takes part and does things? And by implications, who does not belong? Who is isolated, rejected, disadvantaged? Put otherwise, our aim is to widen the basis of group participation, to acquaint people with people in activity programs, to see that everyone gets a fair chance."

We want to be very clear on the above point. We have no evidence so far on which to criticize any intercultural program found in any school—festivals, assembly talks, exhibits, goodwill exhortations. We do believe, however, that no teacher-educating institution can prepare its students to deal with group-living unless they are given practical experience in group management.

All of this implies a viewpoint toward learning, one which may prove to be in time our major contribution to education. The school is not, as researchers almost always conceive it, a

* For example, the writer's "An Experimental Sociographic Study of a Stratified Tenth Grade Class," *American Sociological Review*, X (1945), 250-61.

massing of individuals, a head count of ages, sexes, IQ's, and running noses. Such statistics are, of course, of use, yet they do not fit one for dealing with social behaviors. They throw little light on the kinds of "conduct problems" reported by all our colleges as existing in local schools.

The school is a pattern of interacting groups, a dynamic system of attractions and repulsions along a few great axes, for example, age, sex, race, and the like. Some groupings are formal, some informal, and some—the most basic of all—are *sub rosa* gossiping cliques. Each group is tied to other groups by linking individuals, a few of whom are leaders. Set this structure in motion and we have a process, or innumerable processes of group action—a gang fight, ball game, club program, faculty meeting. These are group behaviors, not individual, and group codes alone make them intelligible. These codes have a history, a spread over a school, an intensity. They get woven into sticks and stones, built into individual habit patterns, and come at last to constitute the most powerful control in the school. To each newcomer, they shout a message: play fair, be decent, treat equals as equal, or as in some schools, lie, cheat, hate, discriminate!

If schools are like this, how does one get inside them with the ideals he would diffuse? Obviously, groups are the prime ports of entry, the channels of communication uniting all the school. Were the problem this simple, it could be solved by formula: *find the leaders, lead through them*. This is, in fact, what we have tried to do. Through student logs, group-observation forms, sociograms, attitude scales, and such devices, we have tried to describe group processes and leader roles. To democratize these relations is another matter, for schools, like any social structure, resist changes, and we need to study further the complex mechanisms of group action. We need to know the motivations to which individuals will respond, the symbols to which they will react, the flow of group-wise intercommunication.⁷

⁷ For the best the literature affords, Willard Waller, *Sociology of Teaching* (New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc., 1932); George Counts, *School and Society in Chicago* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1928).

RETROSPECT AND OUTLOOK

In retrospect, we feel that a good start has been made in a field that is promising. College administrators have uniformly supported our efforts, seeing in them an aid toward accomplishing basic college objectives, as have college committee chairmen, as two excerpts from many letters will suggest.

"I think our institution has profited a great deal by this study. It has been a good thing for the staff professionally. . . . The methods used were very valuable in developing an approach to social problems in community life and the school. . . . At our regular faculty meeting on Tuesday, the staff voted unanimously to authorize me to make application for 1946. . . ."—FRANK E. BAKER, *President*, State Teachers College, Milwaukee.

"I have been authorized to submit our application for 1946. Our participation during the past year represented the sharpening of an interest in intergroup education long evident on the campus. The projects involved in hard-working committees more than a third of the faculty, plus numbers of students, school people, and lay citizens. . . . The study itself has not only enriched the college program; it has served as an integrating force on the whole campus. . . ."—DR. GRACE I. WOODSON, *Chairman*, College Committee on Intergroup Relations, West Virginia State College.

Elsewhere,^a we shall report at length our findings. Among our tentative conclusions are the following:

1. Intergroup problems vary a great deal the country over in place and in time so that every teacher-training staff should be encouraged to find and be assisted in finding the areas in which it can do effective work. Select problems of interest that seem possible of solution, and where changes in practice can be activated.

2. Understandings of prospective teachers involving race, creed, immigrant heritages, class-level status and rural-urban differences can be increased by short-term educative efforts,

^aTo be published as a book-length report by the American Council on Education in 1947.

with a small but known probability in specific situations of a carry-over into action.

3. An indirect approach to intergroup problems, with emphasis on some inclusive concept such as social participation, appears to be better in democratizing attitudes and actions than a direct approach where specific groups are singled out for special attention. This conclusion needs further experimental verification, but if accepted, it stands to change the main emphasis of present methods in intercultural education.

4. One may find concern and leadership in intergroup education in various places about the campus, not only, as often held, in social science fields. The most effective leadership on any campus will show in personal behavior what is taught in classroom theory, a point on which students are extremely conscious.

5. Teachers at every level can learn to do better, and do more, in intergroup education, a conclusion drawn from our data. Needs, in order of primacy, would seem to be for motivation, techniques, and materials. Our guess is that a great advance would be made if the many statewide committees and national agencies now at work would coordinate their efforts along the above lines.

6. The greatest single factor accounting for school inaction in this high tensional area and for undemocratic practices is, in our opinion, administrative and teacher insecurity. For this, we know no certain corrective, though a schoolwide attack on intergroup problems, plus unwavering administrative support, is a pretty well grounded inference.

7. Most of us in educating center thought tightly about ourselves, or about some textbook authority, denying to learners the right to plan, to make mistakes, to learn. If, as better tactics, we tried to lead a group through its leaders, to integrate isolates, control dominates, use special abilities, it is likely that our teaching would induce more changes in behavior.

8. One cannot teach unless someone learns, hence no teaching scheme, no community project, can be rated as worth more

than its appraised value. Lack of interest in evaluation, or inability to evaluate, is widespread, thus a definite handicap to significant progress. Any adequate appraisal should not ignore subjective data, the kind secured in, say, projective tests, although reliance will continue to be put, no doubt, on objective tests, for example, attitude scales.

For the year ahead, we will be able more than to double the number of colleges serviced and thus improve our sample of all teacher-educating institutions. We plan to regionalize these twenty-odd colleges into four groups: the middle states, the eastern, the southern, the far western. All old colleges have reapplied to our executive committee^a and been accepted. New colleges so far accepted or recommended are as follows: Colorado State College, Greeley; Springfield College, Springfield, Massachusetts; State Teachers College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin; University of Denver; Central Michigan College of Education, Mt. Pleasant; Roosevelt College, Chicago; State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota; Tal-ledega College, Alabama; Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe; Southwest Texas State College, San Marcos; Occidental College, Los Angeles; Lynchburg College, Virginia; and San Francisco State College. Our one conspicuous failure in building an adequate sample is to secure any Catholic teacher-educating institutions.

So far as we can see just now, we shall continue our general pattern of services. Our chief handicaps last year were three. With colleges anticipating great increases in enrollment, the times were not good for an experimental program, nor do they promise to be better in 1946-47. Secondly, we could not make study forms and use them at one and the same time, a defect we have remedied in part in a summer workshop for college committee chairmen. We have created a folio of forms, tests, and scales for use in the College Study and for

^aThe members of the interim committee of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education were Walter E. Hager, Charles W. Hunt, Mary E. Leeper, Allen D. Patterson, John Dale Russell, Jean Armour MacKay, secretary, and Karl W. Bigelow, chairman.

release after satisfactory trial and revision. Finally, as in every effort to improve education, we have been defeated at times by human-nature factors, for example, campus conflicts. In our judgment it is these factors of individual role and status, group morale and cooperation, rather than technical problems, that need insightful study. This is the over-all lesson for education and religion that comes from wartime changes in the Army, Navy, and industry.

The Philadelphia Story of Education by Radio

By RUTH WEIR MILLER

EVERY WEEK more than one hundred ninety-five thousand pupils in 86 percent of the public schools of Philadelphia hear radio programs as part of their regular classroom activities. These impressive figures are the result of a more than three-year successful experiment with radio in education. Programs for in-school listening are planned by the Radio Committee of the public schools under the chairmanship of Gertrude Golden, district superintendent.

Since September 1943 five teachers who were trained in the techniques of radio in the summer workshops sponsored co-operatively by Station KYW and the board of education, have been released from their teaching assignments to work full time on educational radio programs. These radio assistants plan, write, and produce educational radio programs; they write teachers' manuals to help teachers to use the program effectively; they evaluate the school shows and give demonstration lessons to teachers interested in this new teaching device.

The Philadelphia radio roster includes thirteen programs each week from kindergarten through twelfth grade, in various subject fields. Science is presented on three different programs, two at the elementary level and one for secondary schools; two music appreciation programs are beamed to primary and secondary grades; the history of the United States and the history of South American countries are presented in dramatized form; high school students get a chance to express their opinions on the "Junior Town Meeting" program, while "Behind Today's News" analyzes living history for fifth and sixth grades; literature is broadcast on two programs, one a story hour and one a dramatized presentation of the "stories our world-neighbors tell"; training in good citizenship becomes a painless process when it is accomplished

by an entertaining program starring a mythical hero, "Filbert, the Flea"; and the little tots learn ideal listening habits when they climb aboard the "Radioland Express" train for fifteen minutes of songs, poems, and stories.

In the recent survey to which reference has already been made, it was discovered that the "Music in the Air" program had the greatest audience appeal, followed by "Radioland Express" as a close second. Both of these programs command weekly audiences of more than twenty-five thousand.

But more significant than the numbers of pupils listening is the effective utilization of these programs as a regular part of classroom instruction. Teachers have found that a radio program can be a valuable educational experience.

Essentially, the purposes of the Radio Committee of the Philadelphia Public Schools in their program of education by radio have been two-fold: (1) to interpret the schools to the community, (2) to enrich the work of the classroom by making available an effective new teaching device.

Any program broadcast to the schools helps to interpret their work to parents and to the wide listening audience which the commercial stations command. In addition, Philadelphia teachers have found that radio can help them to attain certain objectives. Their experience has convinced them that, used with intelligence and imagination, radio can (1) vitalize the work of the classroom; (2) supplement and enrich school-room educational experiences; (3) motivate students to further learning; (4) integrate learning of various subject fields; (5) train youngsters in good taste and in discriminating listening. In the light of our experiences in utilizing radio in the Philadelphia schools from kindergarten to the twelfth grade, let us see how effective a teaching tool radio can be.

Radio is a vitalizing force in classroom instruction, first of all, because it is timely; children are compelled by the immediacy of events, and they feel keenly a sense of participation in world affairs when the schools' own news commentator, Alexander Griffin, nationally known news analyst of WIP, comes to the microphone with a weekly newscast, "Behind

Today's News," on Monday, at 1:45 P.M. This program is just one of a variety of educational experiences which radio can contribute. Children themselves set the stage for the broadcast by reading newspapers eagerly and trying to determine what items of news Alexander Griffin will choose for comment. When he mentions a foreign country the youngsters are eager to learn for themselves the manners, customs, and form of government of that country. Controversial subjects introduced on the program usually result in spirited discussions in the classroom, after school, and at home. The program can fit into any subject in the curriculum and help to vitalize any curricular activity.

The radio assistant who visits the classroom regularly to observe the utilization of this program reports, "The program starts a ball rolling and where it stops is simply a tribute to the resourcefulness of the teacher and the class." Such a program helps a child to adjust himself to this modern, atomic, radar-controlled world. Another way in which we can make curricular activities real and vital and significant is to bring a recognized authority into the classroom via air waves. With a twist of the wrist, it becomes our privilege to hear from a well-known news analyst or to go "Exploring Music" with Mary Van Doren, nationally known pianist and musician, every Wednesday afternoon at 1:45 (WIP). That the experience of listening to good music presented by a recognized artist does vitalize instruction is borne out by the results. After Mary Van Doren's program is over, children enter upon a variety of activities. Some of them paint in free style what the music has suggested to them. Sometimes as a class project, friezes are painted illustrating the music. Boys and girls keep notebooks and scrapbooks on musicians, on musical forms, on newspaper stories of musical events and personalities. The musical program stimulates creative activities along other lines, such as original compositions, writing letters to the broadcasters, writing letters of appreciation to Mary Van Doren. And the wise teacher sometimes uses the musical program as an incentive to vocabulary building. In fact, the

uses of the program are limited only by the creative imagination of the teacher herself. The vitalizing force is there to be used.

Secondly, radio supplements and enriches the regular work of the classroom as few other media can do. Elementary school girls and boys can have a valuable literary experience in hearing a story told with artistry, sometimes "dressed up" with dramatic interludes, every Wednesday afternoon at two-fifteen when they tune in to the "Magic of Books" (WFIL). The program brings enchantment; it has that intangible but educationally valuable quality of showmanship, and the listeners are compelled by the "magic" in books. That it stimulates the audience to good reading is true; that it provides an enrichment of their emotional experience is obvious by looking at their faces and seeing the rapt attention they bring to the program. Since all learning begins with interest, the value of such a program is obvious.

It has often been said that the good radio writer creates characters that are so real that "what happens to them matters to the listeners." We have learned that when American history is presented in highly dramatic form, as it is on "The American Adventure" (KYW, 9:30, Wednesday), or "Lest We Forget" (WIP, 1:45, Thursday), personalities in the story of the American dream become real flesh and blood people. The student gets a sense of participation in the events of long ago, for radio shatters time and space and transports the listener to other times and places. When the narrator says, "The scene is Philadelphia . . . the year 1776 . . .," everyone in the room becomes a part of the Philadelphia of the Revolution and grapples for a moment with the problems of that day. How easy it is after such a broadcast to relate those problems to those which our young citizens will have to face in the America of today! One day last term I visited in a school and heard with a class a broadcast in the "American Adventure" series, titled "Fourteen Points Over Tokyo." It was, of course, a dramatized presentation of Wilson's unsuccessful fight for the League of Nations, together with a

graphic radio picture of the bombing of Tokyo—an incident that might not have happened if Wilson had succeeded. It happened that the broadcast was presented during the time of the U.N. meetings in London, and newspapers were carrying daily accounts of the problems facing the representatives of the nations of One World. After the broadcast, the significance of the meetings of the U.N. to every boy and girl in that class was brought out in the discussion. Children had a new understanding and appreciation of the importance of world events to them as individuals. They realized that they were a part of the "American Adventure."

Another program available to Philadelphia teachers, "Once Upon a Time" (KYW, Friday, 9:30), dramatizes "stories our world-neighbors tell" and presents the myths and legends of every country in the world in such a way that world-neighbors take on a new importance. The stories enlarge the concepts of the young audience and make for a happier understanding of all the peoples of the earth. We know in education that the further away we get from first-hand experience the less meaningful an educational experience will be. Radio is a good substitute for first-hand experience, because, in annihilating space and time, it gives children a sense of actual participation in what is being presented in the program. Therefore, as a supplement to the regular work of the classroom radio cannot be overrated. In addition, we know that there are certain emotional factors that are important in the learning process, and the progressive teacher utilizes those factors more and more. That brings us to the third important role that radio can play—the role of motivator.

As a motivating force radio is outstanding. The American advertiser suspected long ago that radio might be used to cajole, coax, and convince the American housewife that she ought to buy his product, and he discovered to his satisfaction that radio was a supersalesman. At long last educators have begun to use that supersalesman as a motivating and stimulating force. Outstanding in the use of radio to motivate classroom activities is the "Science Is Fun" program (Mon-

day, WFIL, 2:15), a science program for boys and girls of elementary grades. The program capitalizes on the natural curiosity of the child and convinces him that science can be fun. This series of programs consists of dramatizations which illustrate elementary scientific principles followed by simple experiments which are done in the classroom during the broadcast. Programs are divided into units, such as, weather, power, or transportation. Children become so interested in these classroom "laboratories" that they carry on with their experiments at home and exchange reports eagerly with their young fellow-scientists. One young man's enthusiasm caused a little trouble at home. After a radio broadcast on condensation he went home to conduct an experiment in connection with his nightly bath. He became so enthusiastic that he not only used the entire family's supply of hot water for the evening, but he created steam for so long a time that the paper began to come off the wall! Children become so interested in their science programs that of their own accord they bring in pictures and newspaper clippings regarding programs they have heard; the demand for books on science has increased in all libraries; the teachers discover whole new areas of interest among their boys and girls—interests and enthusiasms of which the teacher has been previously unaware. The same thing has happened in connection with a program for elementary schools called "A Trip to the Zoo" (WIP, Friday 1:45). The program begins with a fanciful story, such as "Why the Coyote Has So Many Voices." That is followed by scientific facts about the animal, his habitat, and where he may be seen at the Philadelphia zoo. The story stimulates interest in the animal and gives a new glamour to old zoo friends. That leads to an interest in geography and in research of all kinds. The heart-warming thing to one working in radio constantly is the spontaneous enthusiasm with which children "follow through." After they have heard a broadcast, children always want to find out more and more. On their own, and not because of a formal assignment, they go to books for further information, and also take advantage of educational agencies

like the Franklin Institute, the University of Pennsylvania Museum, and the Zoological Gardens.

Radio as a motivating force is not limited, however, to elementary schools. Philadelphia's "Junior Town Meeting" program designed to "help youth build today for a better tomorrow" acts as a powerful motivating force in the high schools of that area. On this program, boys and girls hear youngsters of their own age discuss the atomic bomb, the problems of world peace, the local housing problem, unemployment compensation, and they follow the program with spirited discussions of their own. Here is a new device for introducing the controversial issue into the classroom. The teacher can take a place in the background and give her students an opportunity to express their opinions, clarify their thinking, and weigh the arguments which they hear. It is all part of training them to think for themselves, not to accept dogmatic beliefs. It gives them the experience of trying to form their own hypotheses, and thus prepares them to take their places as citizens of a free world. Follow-up activities of such a program sometimes take the form of written work or further research to prove the truth or falsity of a statement. Teachers of any subject field find that this program, in addition to motivating students to valuable classroom activities, also helps them to integrate their various classroom experiences.

As an integrating force radio's power is tremendous. And for that reason the teachers who believe in learning by units rather than by isolated subjects are convinced of radio's usefulness. In the "unit" or the "core" curriculum all educational experiences are integrated, and the pattern of learning becomes clear to the student. Imaginative teachers have discovered that the science program, for instance, can be used not only to motivate the study of a unit in science, but also to encourage work in creative drawing based on material in the broadcast, or in oral talks based on research work done after the broadcast, or in a study of the historical background of the scientific data covered in the program. These are just a few of the possibilities. A music appreciation program, "Mu-

sic in the Air," (WFIL) has resulted in many varied experiences. To quote the teacher, "Reading was made easier and desirable because there was a real purpose and a challenge to become better readers in order to understand and appreciate the books to be read about musicians who were presented on the program." Letter-writing skills were developed as a result of listening, through a desire to write to the broadcasters and to the people in charge of the program. Each week, too, children wrote paragraphs about the composers about whom they heard. The class wanted to buy composer booklets from the Presser Company, and this resulted in a project in arithmetic in order to compute the cost of the booklets. The same skills were applied to measuring the bulletin board for pictures, newspaper clippings, and other announcements relative to the "Music in the Air" program. So it goes constantly in the use of radio. This medium cuts across subject fields, and, because it motivates learning, it helps to integrate the learner's experiences and the various kinds of knowledge and skills which he has acquired.

We all know that education should develop concepts, that five concepts in all their richness are better than hundreds of unrelated memorized facts, that everything in the child's world should take on as many meanings as possible. Here again radio leads the way as an educative device because of the way in which it can integrate and correlate educational experiences. It was found by teachers that the "Magic of Books" program stimulated an interest not only in the story itself and other stories of its kind, but also in the country from which it came. Because of that, during the broadcasts of 1945-46, the program "Magic of Books" was planned to correlate with the "Music in the Air" program, a music appreciation broadcast presented by WFIL. The two series then are called "Round the World in Song and Story." On Wednesday, boys and girls hear a story about Italy, such as "Gigi and the Magic Ring," and that is followed on Friday by a concert of the music of Italy. In other words, Italy and its people are interpreted by means of their folk tales and their folk music.

It makes for an understanding of the country, for real appreciation of the contribution of Italians to American culture. Italy then becomes more than just a place on the map. It is people, it is legend, it is music, it is dancing, it is sunlight and mountains; and the boy across the aisle, whose name is Pasquale, takes on a new dignity. Such integration of material, made possible by the new approach of radio, makes the teacher's life pleasanter, her work more effective.

Of course, using radio as a force to vitalize, to enrich, to motivate, and to integrate classroom instruction does not come with merely tuning in to a radio program. Nor is this accomplished by an indiscriminate use of any or all radio programs. Some people believe erroneously that radio takes the place of the teacher. On the contrary, radio in the classroom can be successful only if the teacher makes intelligent use of it. That means that the "radio lesson" consists of preparation for the broadcast, active and interested listening, and well-planned follow-up activities. To facilitate effective utilization, teacher's manuals outlining the purposes of each series, giving suggestions to the teacher for the use of each broadcast, and a bibliography and suggested list of films to supplement the broadcasts, have been prepared for all school programs of the Philadelphia area. It is important that the teacher study the manuals to determine which programs fit her curriculum needs and are suitable to the age and experience level of her students. Then before each broadcast, she can establish in the minds of the audience a genuine purpose for listening and relate the program to the experiences of the child. Without this setting of the stage the program is not particularly valuable. It is important, too, that the listening situation be a good one, that good reception be assured, that the radio be tuned properly and on time, and that children be seated so that they can hear without straining. Only in such a situation can one encourage good listening habits. Immediately after the broadcast, follow-up activities should begin. That is the time to bring out the purposes established in the pre-broadcast

period, to encourage classroom discussion. Sometimes this can be handled well by class committees. It is well to have related illustrative materials on hand whenever possible, or at least to encourage the class to bring them in later. In every way it is important to relate the broadcast to the daily living of each individual and of the group. Of course, follow-up activities do not take place only immediately following the program. Teachers are always delighted with the fact that days, sometimes weeks, after a broadcast something learned on a radio program will be brought up in connection with a subsequent classroom activity. Radio is a new device, a tool in the hands of the interested and the imaginative teacher.

In addition to motivating the teaching of subject matter, techniques, and skills by radio, we have a real job to do in training our youngsters to be discriminating listeners. This means that, first of all, we have to train them in good listening habits. The average American "listens" to the radio for five hours a day. What we mean is that he turns his radio on for that length of time. But we know that the radio listener has frequently been equipped with "boilermaker" ears. Radio is a guest in the home. As such it should be treated graciously and with the good manners one accords a guest. Courteous radio listening should be encouraged by using the radio in school. In the program planned for kindergarten and primary grades, "Radioland Express" (WFIL, Tuesday at 2:15), we are attempting to establish good listening habits at an early age. One kindergarten teacher observed that the first or second time the program was tuned in the children talked during the broadcast. Then they became aware that it was a program just for them; they were invited to sing a song with the lady on the program, to participate in a "sound effects game," to listen to someone tell a story all dressed up with musical background. And they began to listen attentively. Now they remind the teacher "Today's Tuesday! Don't forget we're going to Radioland"; and when the program is on the air, they sit in rapt attention and participate in every-

thing. The same thing holds true with programs at higher-grade levels. Students are learning good listening habits. That is the first step in discriminating listening.

Another important step in radio in education is that teachers are being trained in summer workshops and in college courses in the techniques of radio broadcasting. Then they use their knowledge and skills to train children how to discriminate between good and bad radio script, production, and programming. Children learn not to accept a program simply because it is on the air. In other words, they learn to evaluate what they hear. They are becoming aware that the American system of broadcasting is theirs, that they are now and will be in the future the editors of American radio.

These are some of the highlights in the Philadelphia story of education by radio. Each year the listening audience grows, and the results of radio listening prove the value of radio as an educational medium. The radio roster which the schools are able to offer has been made possible only by the all-out cooperation of the commercial stations with the public, parochial, and private schools. Westinghouse Station KYW pioneered in teacher training with its regular summer workshop for teachers which began in 1943. Since that time all the commercial stations have given radio time, and the advice and help of their personnel to encourage good programming and to keep the school shows at a high professional level. The five radio assistants write the teacher's manuals for all the radio programs, and each of the stations, KYW, WFIL, and WIP, print the manuals and distribute them to every teacher in the school system. Educational agencies such as the Franklin Institute, the Free Library, and the Zoological Society give valuable help in research and help to publicize the programs.

Thus, the Philadelphia story of education by radio proves what can be accomplished by the combined efforts of men of good will.

What 2,775 Soldier Students Thought of Biarritz

By CLARENCE R. CARPENTER and CLARENCE E. GLICK

MUCH HAS BEEN written about the three Army university centers set up overseas between the dropping of the last bomb and the redeployment of the many thousands of men in the European war theater. In general, the educators who taught or administered the program at Biarritz, Shrivenham, and Florence have expressed themselves as well pleased with their soldier students—their attitudes toward schoolwork and their educational achievements in their accelerated courses. Perhaps it is more important to inquire what the soldier students thought of the Army university centers. Why did they go to the Army university? Did they get from it what they wanted? How well did it fulfill its primary mission to aid them in their readjustment to further civilian schooling and to civilian life?

These questions can be answered specifically with reference to Biarritz American University, Biarritz, France, through the cooperation of 2,775 soldier students who were there in October 1945. These 2,775 were part of the 4,000 who had enrolled for the first term at Biarritz opening August 20, 1945, the rest of the original enrollment having been scattered by October, many by redeployment, some for duty assignments elsewhere, and a few because they did not meet the demands of the academic program.

Of the 2,775 who replied to the questionnaire investigation, 95 percent said that their experience at Biarritz American University had been "very valuable" or "valuable." One hundred and twenty-six persons said "not very valuable." Only 8 individuals out of 2,775 replied, "No value—a waste of time."

This evaluation by the soldier students themselves has implications for the colleges and universities in the United States now being stampeded by veterans. Will higher education in

America measure up to the expectation of ex-soldiers? Will it be necessary and desirable for educational institutions to make changes in methods, procedures, and subject matter in order to satisfy the demands of veteran students? What objectives or purposes do soldiers have for going to college? What values do they get from university work and experience? These are questions of interest to the constituencies, boards of trustees, administrators, and instructors who have the heavy responsibilities for American higher education during this critical period of postwar readjustments.

Even while soldiers were still in active military service, many of them took advantage of opportunities to study. They enrolled for courses of the Armed Forces Institute, attended the Information and Education Division's Unit and Command Schools, and later attended the Army university centers. Going to school or studying on their own initiative was a popular and widespread activity for American soldiers during World War II.

Many soldiers were planning their education and applying for admission to civilian universities and colleges long before they were discharged. A previous opinion survey of soldier students in Europe¹ showed that more than two-thirds of the men who were qualified for college, or had attended college before their war service began, had plans for continuing their education as an important part of their readjustment to civilian life.

The present study reports the reasons or objectives given by 2,775 soldier students for wanting to attend Biarritz American University, together with their opinions and evaluations of their achievements during the course. Their objectives and the values actually derived are compared in striking fashion and in detail in Table 3.

Biarritz American University was one of three Army university centers established in Europe by the War Department.

¹ *Faculty Evaluations of the Biarritz American University Educational Program*, Biarritz American University, Research Section, Report No. 1 (Biarritz American University, Academic Division, Jan. 1946). (Mimeographed.)

The others were at Shrivenham, England, and Florence, Italy. The primary mission of these universities was to aid soldiers in their readjustment to civilian life by providing education which would carry over into the postwar period.

The students were given opportunity to study regular college and university courses and otherwise advance their intellectual development. Colleges and universities in the United States generally are accepting at full credit work done at Biarritz American University.

To teach the student body of nearly 4,000, the university was provided with a faculty of 281 individuals. Of these, 145 were civilians who had been recruited directly from American educational institutions, and 136 were military men selected because of their educational training and experience from all grades and ranks and from all branches of the Army.

WHO WERE THE 2,775 STUDENTS?

The 2,775 soldier students who cooperated in this study were a fair representation of the college-level soldiers who were still in Europe when Japan surrendered on September 2, 1945. Many of these veterans have since returned to the United States and have entered colleges and universities (or are seeking entrance) along with many thousands of other men and women of similar interests and abilities.

The following data describe in some detail the student group surveyed at Biarritz:

1. Ninety-nine percent were men, 1 percent women.
2. Ninety-two percent were enlisted personnel, 8 percent officers.
3. The median age was twenty-three; however, 12 percent were between thirty and thirty-four, and 14 percent were thirty-five or more years old.
4. Twenty-eight percent were married; the others were single, divorced, separated, or widowed.
5. The median length of time in the Army was between 30 and 36 months; the median length of time overseas between 12 and 13 months.

6. Two-thirds had served all or most of their time overseas in Army Ground Forces, one-fifth in the Army Service Forces, and one-eighth in the Army Air Forces. All but 20 percent reported that they had either been under enemy fire, including long-range artillery or aerial attacks, or in actual combat with the enemy.

7. Thirty percent had not yet been to a college or university. The median educational level was one year or less in college. Twelve percent had graduated from college, and 5 percent out of this 12 percent had had some graduate work.

8. Geographically, 38 percent came from New England, New York, New Jersey, or Pennsylvania; 30 percent came from the Middle West; 13 percent came from the South; 7 percent from the Southwest; 3 percent from the Rocky Mountain states; 8 percent from the West Coast, and 1 percent from outside the continental United States.

An information schedule, consisting of 57 carefully prepared questions or items, many with subdivisions, was administered on October 6, 1945, to 2,775 students who had completed seven weeks of the eight weeks' term. The International Business Machine punched card procedures were used for tabulating the results. A shorter schedule which provided for many "free answer" or statement responses was given to 229 (82 percent) of the faculty on October 11, after the first term had ended. Summaries of results from anonymous surveys of both student and faculty opinions, attitudes, and evaluations are used as the main basis of this report.

Evaluations of educational procedures and results by the use of student-opinion reactions may be either analytical or summary. The two approaches differ mainly in the degree of specificity of the judgments or evaluations required. For example, opinions and attitudes may be measured relative to elements or single processes of a program, relative to large units or even to the academic program as a whole. These approaches have both advantages and disadvantages. The results of the analytical method require summarization of ele-

mental opinions if general conclusions are to be made; to summarize such facts is difficult and allows for the possibility of some errors. By contrast, the results of highly generalized opinions and evaluations do not require the same kind of summation, but general opinions are likely to involve an element of error because of the complexity of judgments or evaluations required. Both approaches have been used in the evaluation of the Biarritz academic program.

THE EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES OF SOLDIER STUDENTS

Three sets of data were obtained in order to learn about the basic motives of soldiers for coming to Biarritz American University:

1. All students were asked to check whether or not each of a list of twelve formulated reasons or objectives applied in their cases.

2. All students were asked to check or state the *most important* single reason for their coming to the university.

3. All students were given an opportunity to write, in essay form, reasons or purposes in addition to those stated on the prepared check list.

Most of the objectives were serious and thoughtful (see Table 1). The largest number, 67 percent, checked "To become adjusted or readjusted to college work" as one of their reasons for coming to Biarritz, and 27 percent gave this as their "most important reason." Forty-six percent gave as one of their reasons "To get rest and recreation," but only 2 percent gave that as their most important reason. Sizable percentages gave as their most important reason, "To get vocational, professional training, or to study special subjects," "To aid in my choice of a vocation," and "To gain academic credit toward a college degree." Table 1 reports in detail the soldiers' statements as to their objectives. The items are arranged according to a decreasing order of importance as indicated by the percentage of the 2,775 individuals who checked them as "applies in my case."

TABLE 1

OBJECTIVES OF SOLDIER STUDENTS FOR COMING TO BIARRITZ AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

Statement	Percentages of Total Checking Each Item as "Applies in My Case"	Relative Percentage Checking One of All Items as "Most Important Reason"*
To become adjusted or readjusted to college work, and "get back into the swing of studying".....	67	27
To associate with students and staff with interests similar to mine.....	55	14
Because I preferred coming to BAU to what I was doing in my military unit...	54	4
To get vocational, professional training or to study special subjects.....	51	15
To help me decide about going or returning to college.....	46	14
To get rest and recreation.....	46	2
To aid in my choice of a vocation.....	42	10
To see this part of France.....	41	1
To gain academic credit toward a college degree.....	40	9
To work (think) out my philosophy of life..	30	3
To take cultural subjects.....	27	2
To "iron out" my personal-social (personality) difficulties.....	20	2

*Seven percent did not check a most important reason, and 2 percent listed reasons as being most important to them which were not included in the prepared check list.

Students were asked, in addition, to write statements of their personal, educational or other objectives, if such reasons were not in the prepared check list. Many of the statements were simply rephrased items in the check list, but the following are summarized because of the frequency of occurrence, interest, and/or importance.

One hundred and three wrote statements like the following: "To broaden my education," or "To take courses which I had not been able to take before." Men making these comments seemed to realize that their previous training had been too narrow or too specialized to meet their needs.

Sixty-six individuals said they came to Biarritz "To refresh themselves in their fields of special interest." This item confirms the opinions which educators have formed after associat-

ing with military men, especially those with advanced academic and professional standing, that there is an extensive need of refresher training. In this group are doctors, lawyers, engineers, architects, teachers, agriculturists, and many other men who want to learn what the developments have been in their fields while they were away at war.

Sixty-seven students said they came in order "To vary the routine of their assignments, to escape monotony, and to keep from getting into a rut." Thus, to avoid one of the great hazards of a peacetime Army, even an Army on occupation duty, some men sought the opportunity to attend a university.

General statements which expressed the idea of going to college as a means of readjusting to civilian life were expressed by thirty-six persons. This number in itself is of little significance for the majority of reasons stressed by soldiers for coming to Biarritz relate to their needs for making readjustments to civilian life. Extensive evidence shows that most soldiers have some degree of concern about readjusting, especially in terms of being able to adjust to their families and communities, to the necessity for making their own decisions, and to the need for accepting individual responsibility. Most of them have a healthy concern for these matters; some few have worries and anxieties about them.

It is interesting and amusing to note three additional items: five said that they were ordered to come to Biarritz "to fill the unit's quota"; two said that they came because they "couldn't get into any other school"; and one said that he came so that he could "stay in Europe longer."

WHAT VALUES DID SOLDIER STUDENTS GET FROM TWO MONTHS OF STUDY AT BIARRITZ?

It should be re-emphasized that Biarritz American University was designed to serve the needs of soldiers during transition between military and civilian life as well as to maintain their morale while awaiting redeployment. The university offered a regular college or university program taught by

selected civilian and military instructors. To be sure, many improvisations were necessary, especially in connection with housing and academic supplies, but regardless of these it was generally believed by the faculty and students that the standard of the work done at Biarritz was equal to or better than that done in average American colleges and universities. The greatest difference was in requiring the completion of three full semester courses within the two months or forty hours of instruction. Nevertheless, the similarities between Biarritz and American institutions should make the reactions of soldier students to this university of interest to educators throughout the United States. There is good reason to believe that the responses of veterans to colleges and universities at home will have much in common with the reactions of students to Biarritz.

Were soldier students satisfied with their academic work at Biarritz? Or, did they get what they came for? Unequivocally the answer is that they did. In response to the question: *Have you accomplished the main purpose for which you came to BAU?*—

34 percent said: "Yes, very satisfactorily."

47 percent said: "Yes, satisfactorily."

7 percent said: "I'm not sure."

9 percent said: "No, not satisfactorily."

2 percent said: "No, not at all."

1 percent did not answer.

Of the 2,775 students who cooperated in this study, 81 percent were "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with their accomplishments, while only 11 percent expressed dissatisfaction with the results. This highly favorable anonymous evaluation made by rather mature and critical soldier students of their own achievements must mean at least the following: (1) the expectations which soldiers had concerning college and university work similar to that done at Biarritz were in large part fulfilled; (2) soldiers directly from military duties,

when given good instruction even with a minimum of academic equipment, were able to accomplish work which was very acceptable to themselves.

In the report of faculty evaluations previously referred to, data were given to show the faculty believed that more than three-fourths of the students had the qualifications for doing successful college work. Furthermore, 92 per cent of the faculty judged that the attitudes of the soldiers toward their studies were "superior" or "excellent."

In order to get more specific information on soldier students' evaluation of their accomplishments, a check list including most of the items shown in Table 1 was presented in a separate part of the opinion schedule and introduced by the question: *In what specific respects has your experience at BAU been of value to you?*

The answers to this question are summarized in Table 2. The largest number, 71 percent, checked as one of the values they derived from Biarritz, "Enabled me to associate with students and staff who have interests similar to mine," but only 4 percent checked that as the "most important value." Twenty-seven percent checked as the most important value, "Helped me to adjust or readjust to college work and 'get back into the swing' of studying." Other items in Table 2 are enlightening in their reflection of mature students' minds and attitudes, both to teachers of subject-matter courses and to personnel workers.

The Biarritz American University included many activities in the academic program sometimes considered as extra-curricular in American institutions, such as the publication of a daily paper, dramatics, music organizations, field trips and tours, forums, and lectures. How did the soldier students react to and evaluate these phases of the program?

The university had a fair athletic program, but only 22 percent of the first-term students participated in organized athletics either "very frequently" or "occasionally." Of those who did take part, 48 percent said it was "most worth while,"

and 49 percent said it was "O.K." Three percent said it was "a waste of time." Generally soldier students did not respond enthusiastically to organized athletics at Biarritz. Perhaps they had had enough organized exercise while on other assignments.

TABLE 2

VALUES WHICH SOLDIER STUDENTS DERIVED FROM WORK AT BIARRITZ AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

Statement	Percentages of Total Checking Each Item as "Applies in My Case"	Relative Percentage Checking One of All Items as "Most Important Value"*
Enabled me to associate with students and staff who have interests similar to mine...	71	4
Enabled me to enjoy rest and recreation...	70	6
Helped me to adjust or readjust to college work and "get back into the swing" of studying.....	67	27
Enabled me to get vocational training....	51	14
Helped me decide about going or returning to college.....	47	15
Enabled me to gain academic credit toward a degree.....	39	7
Aided me in my choice of a vocation....	34	9
Enabled me to take cultural subjects....	29	3
Helped me to work (think) out a philosophy of life.....	29	3
Helped me to "iron out" my personal-social [personality] difficulties.....	21	1
Enabled me to make important professional contacts.....	18	1

*Three percent listed other values as being most important and 7 percent did not answer the question.

Dances and other entertainments were accessible at an enlisted men's recreation center and at an officers' club. Twenty percent attended "very frequently" and 54 percent attended "occasionally." Of those individuals who took part, 28 percent said it was "most worth while," 64 percent said it was "O.K.," and 8 percent said these activities were "a waste of time."

During the first term of the university the summer season was at its peak, and many students used the afternoon on the

beach as opportunities for social life combined with mild exercise and recreation.

A strong feature of the university's academic program was a rich series of forums on a wide variety of problems, subjects, and topics. Fifteen percent attended forums "very frequently," and 42 percent attended "occasionally," while 21 percent never attended forums, and 4 percent did not answer the question. Of those who attended forums, 67 percent said they were "most worth while," 31 percent said they were "O.K.," and only 2 percent said they were "a waste of time." Thus, about 98 percent approved the forums and lectures. During the second term, the forums and lectures were increased in number and improved in appropriateness and quality. Students responded with an increased enthusiasm.

COMPARISON OF OBJECTIVES OF STUDENTS WITH THEIR OWN ESTIMATES OF VALUES DERIVED

An operational evaluation of an educational program, from the viewpoint of the students, must be accomplished by comparisons of their *wants* and *needs* on the one hand with the *values* and *achievements* on the other hand. Quantitative information is most desirable on what students both want and need as well as their related achievements. Although entirely adequate quantitative measures are lacking, the data at hand in the form of student evaluations, judgments, and estimates are systematically arranged and used as one means of evaluating the Biarritz academic program. The problem now becomes that of comparing the data on reasons or objectives for men coming to Biarritz with data on the values they derived from two months of study at this Army university center.

It is assumed that the two sets of data—frequently of responses to items in the check list and designation of the most important reasons for coming (Table 1)—if combined will result in the most nearly correct ordering and weighting of items. In order to do this, the percentage scores of the items with the number-one rank-order positions in Tables 1 and 2

TABLE 3

THE OPINIONS OF SOLDIER STUDENTS ON REASONS FOR COMING TO BIARRITZ
COMPARED WITH DERIVED VALUES

OBJECTIVES FOR COMING TO BAU			Differential	DERIVED VALUES FROM STUDY AT DAU		
Rank Order	Reasons or Objectives	Weighted Score		Weighted Score	Values or Achievement	Rank Order
1	To become adjusted or readjusted to college work and to "get back into the swing" of studying.	100		97	To become adjusted or readjusted to college work and to "get back into the swing" of studying.	1
2	To associate with students and staff with interest similar to mine.	78		62	To get vocational, professional training or to study special subjects.	2
3	To get vocational, professional training or to study special subjects.	62		61	To help me decide about going or returning to college.	3
4	To aid in my choice of a vocation.	50		60	To get rest and recreation.	4
5	To gain academic credit toward a college degree.	47		57	To associate with students and staff with interests similar to mine.	5
6	To get rest and recreation.	38		41	To aid in my choice of a vocation.	6
7	To help me decide about going or returning to school.	38		40	To gain academic credit toward a college degree.	7
8	To work [think] out my philosophy of life.	28		26	To work [think] out my philosophy of life.	8
9	To take cultural subjects.	24		26	To take cultural subjects.	9
10	To "iron out" my personal-social [personality] difficulties.	19		17	To "iron out" my personal-social [personality] difficulties.	10

were assigned values equal to 100 percent, and the percentage scores for all other items common to both tables were calculated as a relative-percentage score of the 100 percent base.

Thus, both the relative position and the weight of each item were preserved, and the scores were transmuted to scales which could be combined. Then, the scores for the two classes of data for each item were added and an average calculated. The results are given in Table 3.

Some of the results achieved by the simple techniques used in constructing Table 3 deserve emphasis because of their special importance for this and perhaps other research dealing with the problems of evaluating educational programs.

First, two approaches and two sets of data—frequency-of-response checks and most-important-item checks—are combined to give a more stable and more valid rank-order than could have been arranged by using only one approach and one set of data. Thus, the rank-order comparisons can be easily and more surely made between items as objectives and as derived values. Second, the relative-percentage-weighting scores, and hence an indicated relative importance of items, in the two scales are maintained or preserved for purposes of combinations and final comparisons. Third, it is possible to calculate a *differential-index number* which represents varying degrees of plus or minus qualities between an item stated as an educational objective and the same idea expressed as a derived value. Thus, within the limits of available data, it becomes possible to accomplish a comparison between the wants and needs of students and the values they derived from the Biarritz academic program.

It is possible at this point to answer more definitely the question: *Why did soldier students come to Biarritz, and what did they get from their work?*

Close inspection of Table 3 shows, for example, that they came "To become adjusted or readjusted to college work," and "To 'get back into the swing' of studying." This item has the first rank-order position as an *objective* and also as a *derived value*. In addition, it can be seen that the weighted score as an objective is 100, whereas the weighted score as a derived value is 97; there is a very small differential-index

number of -3. Thus, there is good basis for concluding that soldier students came, among other things, for this purpose, and in their opinions they got approximately what they expected or anticipated.

Item 3 in reasons for coming to BAU is "To get vocational training." This item moved from rank-order 3 in the objectives column to rank-order 2 in the derived-values column, but the weighted scores are the same; hence, there is a 0 differential-index score. Students got what they hoped for.

"To gain academic credit toward a college degree" occupies rank-order 5 as an objective. The item is found in rank-order 7 in the derived-values column, and the differential index score is -7. To get credit toward a college degree appears to have been somewhat more important to soldier students as an objective than as an actually derived value. There are two possible reasons for this: relative to other achievements, credit may have become less important in the opinion of the student than other factors after two months work at Biarritz; but also, during the last weeks of the first term there was considerable uncertainty about credit because the administration had no assurance that American colleges would allow credit for work at Biarritz, and students may have expected difficulties in getting credits on returning to the United States. As stated before, colleges and universities in the United States are generally allowing full credit for work done at BAU.

One further example will suffice to show how Table 3 should be used. The seventh most important reason for coming to Biarritz was "To help me to decide about going or returning to college." This item rose to position 3 as a derived value. The differential-index number is +23, the largest degree of change shown for any item. This item was of relatively high importance as a value which soldier students got from the educational program. It is reasonable to conclude that men were aided greatly in making decisions about returning to school.

In terms of the opinions and evaluations of students and within the limits of the check list, it is now practical to give a

summary answer in semiquantitative terms to the question: *What did they come for and did they get what they wanted?*

Let it be assumed that a 0 differential-index score represents a balance or an equation between an item stated as an expectation (objective) and the same item evaluated as satisfaction or accomplishment (value). *Plus* deviations indicate more derived value than was expected and *minus* deviations indicate less than was expected. What, then, is the summarized evaluation score in terms of students' anticipations (objectives) and satisfactions (derived values)?

The sum of all positive (+) differential-index scores equals +47, and the sum of all negative (—) differential-index scores equals —41. When the summed minus score is subtracted from the summed plus score, the result is +6. On the basis of this evaluational technique it may be concluded that the students who attended Biarritz American University for the first term were well satisfied with their opportunities and achievements. In terms of their stated educational objectives, they achieved somewhat more than they expected. Since the mission of this Army university center was to serve the needs and wants of soldiers awaiting redeployment, it is definitely concluded, therefore, that during the term investigated Biarritz American University was successfully accomplishing its mission.

A summary evaluation of soldier students' experiences while at Biarritz was requested by a question which read: *In general, just how valuable would you say your experience at BAU has been to you?*

1,394, or 50 percent, said: "Very valuable."

1,240, or 45 percent, said: "Valuable."

126, or 4 percent, said: "Not very valuable."

8 said: "No value—a waste of time."

7 did not answer the question.

The degree of unanimity of favorable responses to this educational program is probably very extraordinary and certainly would not have been found in an anonymous-opinion

survey of critical soldiers unless the Biarritz American University had largely fulfilled their anticipations.

Biarritz American University was representative of the better half of American higher education. And since soldier students responded favorably to the Biarritz program, it is highly probable that veterans will respond equally well to *similar* programs in American colleges and universities. This, however, will be true only to the degree that American institutions adjust their educational programs to meet the needs of veterans as the Biarritz American University was adjusted to meet the needs of its students.

Western Australia's Free University

By GAVIN S. CASEY

AUSTRALIA's least populated state has the only free university in the Empire—the University of Western Australia. Twenty years ago it was a collection of bizarre shacks ("humpies" as the Australians call them) known as "Tin Pot Alley." Today it is the most beautiful university in the southern hemisphere: its buildings, mainly Italian in style, were designed by the late Rodney Alsop, a Melbourne architect.

The university represents a bold experiment in education because it is the only institution of its kind in the Empire, which does not charge fees for lectures. A nonresident student is liable for incidental expenses totalling not more than £5/5/ (\$17.05) a year.

The university was born in humble circumstances and grew slowly. When gold was discovered in the nineties, the population of the state increased four times in ten years—from 49,000 in 1891 to 184,000 in 1901—and accompanying it came a demand for facilities for higher education. A committee to conduct local examinations for the Adelaide University was formed before the turn of the century, and in 1901 a motion was carried in Parliament urging the government of the day to give immediate consideration to the establishment of a university. Two years later Parliament created the University Endowment Trust and granted it about 4,000 acres of suburban land as the nucleus, but nothing further was done until 1909, when a Royal Commission was appointed to investigate the question of the expediency of the establishment of the institution. The commission approved, and two years later a bill was passed to give effect to the recommendation.

The university was not called the University of Perth because the people who brought it into existence intended that it should be maintained by the state and that its doors should be open freely to all students who could prove ability to benefit from its instruction.

The control of the university was vested in the senate and convocation. The first senate was appointed on February 13, 1912, which is regarded as the date of the foundation of the institution. Convocation was formally declared to be in existence on February 21, 1913. The senate held its first meeting on March 13, 1912, and appointed Sir John Winthrop Hackett to be the first chancellor. Sir John Hackett, newspaper proprietor and politician, subsequently made benefactions which were to contribute so greatly to its life and comfort. His original gift, made on the occasion of his appointment, was the endowment of a chair of agriculture, the only endowed chair in the university.

The senate had been empowered to provide instruction in any branch of knowledge in which British universities interested themselves and decided to grant degrees in arts, science, engineering, law, and agriculture. Faculties of medicine and music were constituted for admission to degrees *ad eundem gradum*.

The initial enrollment of the university was 156 students, of whom 68 were women. The first lectures were given on March 31 in a weatherboard shack in the heart of Perth. To this other bits were added, bit by bit, year by year, until the block on which it stood was completely filled with a huddle of rough buildings.

Some of the bits were secondhand. One room had been used by the Salvation Army at Coolgardie, pulled apart, re-erected and given a perfunctory lick of paint. When one of the professors was told by a citizen, "We have no slums in Perth," he replied, "No slums! Have you seen the university?" The teaching staff of the new institution had come together from Oxford, London, Glasgow, Montpelier, Sydney, and Melbourne. All were accustomed to associate the idea of a university with stately, venerable, and august buildings. Then they came to Perth and found themselves condemned to teach in weatherboard shacks. They were constantly assured by the government that this was only a temporary home for them. But the year after the university opened, two disasters

struck, a world war and a terrible drought. Hopes for a rapid improvement were remote.

Then in 1925 the university came into an inheritance of nearly half a million pounds, the Winthrop Hackett bequest. Shortly afterwards a beautiful block of stone buildings began to rise at Crawley on a sweeping bay of the Swan River.

The Winthrop Hackett bequest could be spent only on buildings and for scholarships; not one penny of it could legally be used for the running expenses of the institution. Those responsible for conducting the university in a worthy manner had to go on fighting as they had fought from the beginning for money. The senate still had to devote much of its energy to wringing from the government the funds to allow the university to live and to expand. The original grant from the State was £13,500 (\$43,875) a year. By 1936 it had grown only to £34,500 (\$112,125), and next year (1946) the university will receive £40,000 (\$130,000).

The university received from the Hackett bequest the sum of £425,000 (\$1,381,250) of which £200,000 (\$650,000) was allocated to the erection and maintenance of a group of buildings consisting of a ceremonial hall (the Winthrop Hall), senate chamber, administrative offices, library, lecture rooms, and students' building (the Hackett Hall) and £200,000 (\$650,000) to the provision of studentships, scholarships bursaries, and other financial help to deserving students.

An architectural competition held for the design of the main group of university buildings was won by Messrs. Rodney Alsop and Conrad Sayce, but Mr. Alsop was the architect for the actual work of construction. In designing the buildings, Rodney Alsop based his ideas on the Renaissance style. He aimed to produce a harmonious work of art distinguished by the serene simplicity of form, the balance, symmetry, and restraint of the ancient Greeks. Greatly daring, he incorporated architectural ideas from widely different sources. The final result is a masterpiece of beauty, dignity and expressiveness.

In the tympanum of the Great Gateway is a beautifully

executed mosaic panel, carried out in the manner of Byzantium, representing the Five Lamps of Learning. The flanking turrets of the gateway are reminiscent of the massive pyloned portals of Egypt, but their change in shape from square at the base to octagonal above indicates a distinct relationship to the Tudor gateways of Oxford and Cambridge.

The clock dial of opus sectile suggests the architecture of Italy; the balconette on the tower conveys a suggestion of one in Portugal. The double columns of the cloisters of Monreale in Sicily and of the early Christian basilicas of Rome inspired the design of the upper colonnade of Winthrop Hall, and the weight-carrying columns of Crete had their influence in the design of the undercroft arcades, where a great height of massive wall had to be carried by slender supports. On a platform in the undercroft is a pillar bearing a carved head of Socrates.

The university's hall for ceremonial occasions, the Winthrop Hall, is approached through three stone arches, wrought-iron gates, and foyers whose floors have mosaic designs worked in marbles imported from Europe. Behind the dais is a series of panels by Henry Holliday, the English pre-Raphaelite painter. The theme and motifs of the decoration of the great ceiling-beams of Hackett Hall are taken from the designs of Australian aboriginal artists and craftsmen. When the idea was first suggested to the Australian artist, George Benson, he saw the opportunity of creating something beautiful through its sheer simplicity. But though the final effect is simple, the means of attaining it were exceedingly complex. Benson wrote:

I was given a very limited range of color, the simple earth-red, yellow ochre, black from charcoal, and pipe clay. The object was, with the designs of our local primitive artists, to weave a color pattern and try to create something as intriguing as a Persian carpet. To create symmetry of design, the rough irregular lines had to take their place artistically by a definite convention; and this was arrived at by regularly repeated symmetrical designs, which are found on the soffits of both the main and longitudinal beams. These are, in effect, the steadying factors that satisfy our sophisticated sense of the aesthetic.

A drawing was first made to scale on brown mounting-board cut and folded to approximate the main beams. Then the actual work on the beams began, and it was a Gargantuan job. I had made numerous drawings from aborigines' implements, but my interest in the work was not anthropological or from any aspect except that of using the simple designs to make an effective composition. I used every symbolic and totemic design that I could find. The designs on the soffits of the main beams are alternately a series of diamonds and squares copied from a southwestern tribesman's shield, while on the others is a running pattern of the lines derived from the shield of another native.

The university intends that all its new buildings shall be constructed after the style developed by Alsop. The grounds of the site are extensive and can accommodate any reasonable increase in the activities of the institution and the number of students. There are ovals for all sports and commodious gardens and shrubberies in which live hundreds of varieties of native flora, big and small.

An interesting feature of the outdoor life of the university is the Temple of Nature, an open-air auditorium capable of accommodating more than two thousand. The walls of this auditorium are living trees—native peppermints, a species of eucalypt with habits something like the willow and growing to about ten or twelve feet high. The peppermints were planted closely together, and their branches intertwining have created an almost solid wall. Stately Norfolk Island pines define the limits of the stage.

The Winthrop Hackett bequest provided the university with its first, and up to now, only residential college—St. George's. After making provision for his family, Sir Winthrop Hackett willed the residue of his estate (which consisted principally of the goodwill of the newspaper *The West-Australian*, on which was realized some £600,000 (\$1,950,000) by the university and the Anglican Church in different proportions. The church's share, which was specifically bequeathed for a residential college, amounted to £180,000 (\$585,000). The college and chapel, which are Georgian and Gothic respectively in style, cost £120,000 (\$390,000). The college which was

opened in 1931 has accommodation for 64 students, and residential charges range from £75 (\$241.25) to £90 (\$290) a year according to the service given.

The university authorities are planning to erect a residential college for women as soon as possible.

There are five faculties at present—arts, science, engineering, law (which was suspended for the duration of the war), and agriculture. Students may also do first-year medicine, but have to complete their course in the Eastern States. It is hoped that faculties of medicine and dentistry will ultimately be established, and during this year two gifts of money were received.

In peacetime there were the usual methods of entrance to the university: the students either matriculated in the faculty in which they were interested or established to the satisfaction of the authorities that they were capable of taking advantage of the study. However, unless they secured passes in half of the subjects taken each year, they were not regarded as satisfactory and had to show cause why they should be readmitted during the next year.

The average number of students was about one thousand and the teaching staff numbered forty. An interesting feature of the university is that it has external students, in the faculty of arts, who do not attend classes at all but obtain their tuition by correspondence. Special arrangements are made for these students to sit for their examinations at local centers. Some students do part of their course by correspondence and then complete it at the university itself. In peacetime more than one hundred students a year studied by this external system, but during the war, with the extension of their facilities to servicemen and women, the number increased considerably.

Although no fees are charged for lectures, there are minor charges for the use of certain scientific apparatus, and students are required to furnish a deposit of £1/1/0 (\$3.41) for each subject taken. This is refunded after the examination is finished.

The Hackett bursaries are granted to undergraduates whose

means are insufficient for them to take a course without assistance. Before the war the university granted about one hundred bursaries a year, or to about 10 percent of the total number of students. If the student makes satisfactory progress, the bursary is continued to the completion of the course. The actual amount each student receives varies, as the grant is graduated according to a means test. It is interesting to note that these means investigations have shown that the average income of parents of bursary students is less than £5 (\$16.25) a week. The strain on the Hackett bursary fund is not so heavy now that the commonwealth government assistance scheme is in operation.

Between 1926 and 1939 some fifty students were sent abroad for postgraduate courses.

The university received a second substantial gift in 1927 when Mr. J. R. Gledden, a retired surveyor, bequeathed it an estate valued at £60,000 (\$195,000) with the request that the income should be devoted to traveling scholarships in engineering, mining, or surveying subjects.

A high proportion of the students of the university have acquitted themselves well, and they are to be found all over the world. Western Australia is generally an agricultural community and can offer her university graduates fewer opportunities than most of the other states. The outstanding graduate of the university is Professor Harold Bailey, Professor of Sanscrit at Cambridge.

After the war, the university will probably attract students from the Netherlands East Indies and India. A few Indians were students before the war.

The war, of course, curtailed the activities of the university. The number of students fell from nearly one thousand to seven hundred but this year there are about eight hundred.

The Council at Work

The Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring additional information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

The fall meeting of the Problems and Policies Committee was held on October 10 and during the morning of October 11, 1946, at the Westchester Country Club, Rye, New York. Considerable attention was given at this meeting to the proposed legislation for a federal Department of Health, Education, and Security, federal aid to education, the new War Department proposal for universal military training, and for a national organization in the field of testing. The meeting of the Executive Committee of the Council followed on the afternoon and evening of October 11.

THIRTIETH ANNUAL MEETING

The Council has been able to secure the Hotel Mayflower in Washington, D. C., as the place of its thirtieth annual meeting, on May 2-3, 1947. Arrangements for hotel accommodations for those attending the meeting will be worked out with the hotel and the Greater National Capital Committee of the Board of Trade. It may not be possible for the Mayflower to accommodate all who will be present at the meeting. Further information will be sent Council members at a later date.

GRANTS

New grants of funds to the Council are as follows:

CARNEGIE CORPORATION:

\$ 25,000 for the work of the Commission on International Educational Reconstruction.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE:

\$ 500 toward the publication of the textbook-study survey of the Canada-United States Committee on Education.

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD:

\$ 11,500 for the work of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE:

\$ 17,000 additional to complete the educational survey of the Arabic-speaking countries in the Near East.

\$ 25,800 additional for assistance to American schools in China and neighboring countries.

\$182,110 for assistance to American-sponsored schools in other American republics.

\$ 32,000 for assistance to the United States Cultural Centers in Buenos Aires, Cordoba, and Rosario, Argentina.

STATE OF MARYLAND:

\$ 15,000 for a survey of higher education in the state of Maryland.

JULIUS ROSENWALD FUND:

\$ 6,500 for the use of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, toward the expenses of a National Clinic in Teacher Education, November 5-9, 1946, in Atlanta, Georgia.

DISABLED AMERICAN VETERANS:

\$ 25,000 for a study of the problems of disabled veterans in attendance at colleges, universities, and trade schools.

MEMBERSHIP

Recent additions to the membership of the Council are as follows:

Constituent

Congress of Industrial Organizations
Western College Association

Associate

National Institute of Credit of the National Association of Credit
Men

Institutional

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

College of Saint Teresa, Kansas City, Missouri
East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina
New School for Social Research, New York City
New York State Teachers College at Oswego
Roosevelt College of Chicago

SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Boston (Massachusetts) Archdiocesan School System
Catholic Schools, Diocese of Providence (Rhode Island)
Chicago (Illinois) Archdiocesan School Board
Cincinnati (Ohio) Archdiocesan School System
Michigan State Department of Public Instruction
Milwaukee (Wisconsin) Diocesan School System
New Orleans (Louisiana) Archdiocesan School Board
New York (New York) Archdiocesan School System
Philadelphia (Pennsylvania) Archdiocesan School System
River Forest (Illinois) Board of Education
University City (Missouri) Public Schools

The membership of the Council, as of October 1, now
stands as

Constituent members	65
Associate members	52
Institutional members	794
Total	911

MEETINGS OF STANDING COMMITTEES

Council committees, as listed below, have met during the
summer and early fall to consider progress made and to lay
plans for their continuing activities:

Commission on Motion Pictures in Education, June 7-8; New York City

Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, June 8-9, July 11, and September 30-October 1; Washington

Committee on Measurement and Guidance, June 21-23; Endicott, New York

Executive Committee, June 22-23, Endicott, New York

Commission on a Study of Pharmaceutical Education, June 26; Washington

Committee on Modern Languages, July 13-14; Washington

Committee on Filmstrips and Slide Projects, July 17; Washington

Committee on a Manual of College and University Business Organization and Administration, August 14-17; Grand Beach, Michigan

Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, August 17-18; Atlanta

Pacific Coast Committee, August 31; Berkeley, California

Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, September 14; Washington

Committee on Education and Social Security, September 23; Washington

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION

On July 13, 1946, President Truman appointed thirty individuals to a President's Commission on Higher Education, which was charged with the responsibility of examining the functions of higher education in America. The president of the Council, George F. Zook, was named chairman of the Commission. At the same time Francis J. Brown, staff associate at the American Council on Education, was named executive secretary of the Commission, and is giving half-time to its activities. The Commission has held one meeting, at which a program of investigation was planned. It is scheduled to meet again on December 10-11. The headquarters of the

Commission is in Room 1275, Lafayette Building, Washington 25, D. C.

EDUCATIONAL MISSION TO GERMANY

The Department of State and the War Department invited eleven American educators to go to Germany to examine the educational situation in the United States Occupation Zone. The Council's president, George F. Zook, was named chairman of the mission, and two members of its Executive Committee, Helen C. White and Henry H. Hill, were included in the group. The members of the mission left by plane for Germany on August 23 and spent approximately one month examining educational institutions in the several American-occupied sections of Germany. Miss White, Dr. Hill, and Dr. Zook returned to the United States a few days before the others, to keep important engagements in Washington. The sphere of the mission was extended in order that some members of the party might go into Austria for a short time to observe the educational situation there. It is presumed that the report of the group will be published in the near future.

THE UNITED STATES NATIONAL COMMISSION ON INTERNATIONAL, EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL COOPERATION

The American Council on Education was among the fifty organizations selected by the Department of State to appoint a representative on the United States National Commission on International Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Cooperation (known as the National Commission for UNESCO). The chairman of the Council, George D. Stoddard, appointed President George F. Zook as the Council's delegate to the National Commission. The first meeting of the National Commission was held in Washington on September 23-26, inclusive. Because of his absence in Germany, Dr. Zook was unable to attend the sessions on the first two days, but Dr. A. J. Brumbaugh, vice president of the Council, was present as an observer. Dr. Zook returned to the United

States in time to attend the sessions on September 25 and 26.

The chairman of the Council, George D. Stoddard; a member of its Executive Committee, Helen C. White; and two members of the Council's Problems and Policies Committee, Frederick G. Hochwalt and Alexander J. Stoddard, are also members of the National Commission on UNESCO.

At the request of the United States Office of Education, the Council has made a small financial contribution toward the setting-up of an exhibit of American educational programs and publications for display at the meeting of UNESCO during the month of November 1946 in Paris. It is also furnishing a set of the Council's publications for the exhibit.

A JOINT CONFERENCE ON AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS

In cooperation with the Film Council of America, the Council called together in Washington on June 14-15, 1946, a group of leaders in the field of audio-visual educational materials, to consider what services in this area might be rendered by UNESCO. A series of recommendations relating to the international exchange of audio-visual educational materials resulted from this conference. These will be transmitted to the Preparatory Commission for UNESCO through proper channels. A report of the conference is to be published this fall.

SURVEY OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN MARYLAND

At the request of the Commission nominated by the Governor of Maryland, the Council has undertaken a survey of the institutions of higher education in that state. Dr. John Dale Russell, formerly of the University of Chicago and now chief of the Division of Higher Education at the U.S. Office of Education, is directing the survey. A grant of \$15,000 has been made available for the expenses of the study. It is hoped that the survey will be completed by the first of January 1947.

EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM

On October 18-19, 1946, the Council is calling together a small group of interested individuals to explore the possibility of a comprehensive study of educational journalism throughout the country, the outcome of which would be the improvement and development of the services of educational journalism to the cause of better education. The Council has long been interested in such a study and is looking forward to the advice of the specialists invited to participate in the forthcoming conference.

PACIFIC COAST COMMITTEE

The Pacific Coast Committee of the Council held its first meeting on August 31, 1946, in Berkeley, California. The committee has initiated a study of population growth on the west coast and its impact on higher education in that region. It has several other activities under consideration, including a possible volume similar to that issued by the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, *Education Helps to Build a Region*. The chairman of the committee, Alvin C. Eurich, reports the enthusiastic interest of the Pacific Coast organizations and institutions in the work and plans of the committee.

SOCIAL SECURITY AND EDUCATION

Under the auspices of the Council's Committee on Social Security and Education, two highly successful workshops were held during the summer: one in Pittsburgh and one at the University of North Carolina. These workshops were under the direction of Karl de Schweinitz, who is in charge of the committee's activities.

EMERGENCY PROBLEMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A large group of persons met in a conference, called by the Council, on July 11-13, at the headquarters building of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce in Washington, to discuss

emergency problems in higher education. Representatives of various government departments addressed the group on matters of mutual interest. The proceedings of the conference have been published and are available at the Council office.

CONFERENCE BOARD OF ASSOCIATED RESEARCH COUNCILS

The Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, consisting of the American Council of Learned Societies, the National Research Council, and the Social Science Research Council, has invited the American Council on Education to join with them as a member of the board, in order that the professional field of education might be adequately represented in the board's deliberations. The Council has accepted the invitation and President George F. Zook is acting as the delegate of the Council at the meetings of the board.

A WORKSHOP IN INTERGROUP RELATIONS

In cooperation with the National Conference of Christians and Jews, the American Council on Education is planning a workshop in intergroup relations, to be held in Washington on January 22-23, 1947. Plans for the workshop are now going forward. Francis J. Brown of the American Council staff is handling the details with representatives of the National Conference.

A NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A joint committee of representatives from the Problems and Policies Committee of the Council and the Educational Policies Commission was set up last spring to consider the feasibility of promoting a national commission for the public schools. Julius E. Warren, superintendent of schools in University City, Missouri, was engaged by the two groups to make an exploratory study of the situation. As a result of his activities a group of distinguished laymen have been invited to meet with the representatives of the two educational groups

at the Westchester Country Club, Rye, New York, on October 12-13, 1946, to give further consideration to the matter.

THE ELEVENTH EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

Plans for the eleventh Educational Conference, sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau, the Cooperative Test Service, the Graduate Record Examination, and the Committee on Measurement and Guidance, have been announced. The conference, which was held annually for ten years prior to the war, will be held at the Hotel Roosevelt in New York City on October 31 and November 1, 1946. The conference will be followed on November 2 by an Invitational Conference on Testing Problems, at the Hotel Roosevelt, under the auspices of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance of the American Council on Education.

COMMISSION ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

This Commission, which was given its initial impetus by the American Council on Education, is composed of representatives of approximately twenty major educational organizations and agencies. The Council is serving as fiscal agent for the Commission's grant received from the Carnegie Corporation.

The Commission will endeavor (1) to inform the American people through their schools and educational agencies of the needs of the war-devastated countries for educational assistance reported to it by the various governments, UNESCO, UNRRA, and the State Department; (2) to assist the organizations in planning effective programs of educational rehabilitation; (3) to aid the organizations in making their services to devastated countries effective by securing information concerning facilities for the shipment of supplies, the offering of scholarships, and the sending of educational missions; and (4) to encourage better international and intercultural understanding through relief and rehabilitation activities in schools and colleges.

The Commission has issued a statement of its purposes and

scope of activities, and will distribute a monthly bulletin of information, starting late in October.

Harold E. Snyder, formerly a member of the staff of the Council's Commission on Teacher Education, and later of UNRRA, is executive secretary of the Commission on International Educational Reconstruction, with offices at 744 Jackson Place, Washington. Robert Stanforth, formerly president of Bay Path College, Springfield, Massachusetts, is associate secretary.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Publications of the Council which have been issued during the past few months are as follows:

The Improvement of Teacher Education: A Final Report of the Commission on Teacher Education. Published June 17. Price, \$2.00.

Hawaiian Schools: A Curriculum Survey, 1944-45. By Edgar M. Draper and Alice H. Hayden. Published June 28. Price, \$2.00.

Financial Assistance for College Students. By Russell T. Sharpe, George B. Risty, William S. Guthrie, and Harold B. Pepinsky. Committee on Student Personnel Work. Studies, Series VI, No. 7. Published September 23. Price, \$1.00.

Opinions on Gains for American Education from Wartime Armed Services Training. By M. M. Chambers. Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. Published August 12. Price, 50¢.

Accreditation Policies of State Departments of Education for the Evaluation of Service Experiences and USAFI Examinations. Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences. Published August 30. Free.

Emergency Problems in Higher Education: The Report of a Conference of Government Officials, Military Officers, and Representatives of American Colleges and Universities, July 11-13 1946. Edited by Francis J. Brown. Studies, Series I, No. 24. Published August 17. Price, \$1.00.

The Crisis in Teaching. By Karl W. Bigelow for the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. Published July 18. Free.

A Survey of Collegiate Courses in Aviation and Related Fields. Prepared in cooperation with the Civil Aeronautics Administration. October 1944. Revised edition, August 1946. Distributed free by the Civil Aeronautics Administration, Washington, D. C.

Higher Education and National Affairs. Bulletin No. 102, dated July 18; Bulletin No. 103, dated July 22; Bulletin No. 104, dated August 14; Bulletin No. 105, dated September 30; Bulletin No. 106, dated October 18.

Filmstrips of the Life in the United States series with the following titles: *New York City, Cotton Textile Industry, Department Store, Oil in America, Pittsburgh, Story of Steel.* Delivered October 1.

The Educational Record, July 1946.

The President's Annual Report. Reprints.

Financial Statements of the American Council on Education

THE BUDGET, 1946-47

(As approved by the Annual Meeting, May 3, 1946)

RECEIPTS

	<i>Estimated Resources July 1, 1945 to June 30, 1946</i>	<i>Actual Receipts July 1, 1945 to June 30, 1946</i>	<i>Budget, Estimated Resources July 1, 1946 to June 30, 1947</i>
Membership dues.....	\$ 40,000.00	\$ 45,990.00	\$ 57,000.00
Special grants.....	45,000.00	45,000.00	45,000.00
Reimbursement for services.....	8,000.00	10,444.75	12,500.00
Income from Publications Division.....	4,000.00	4,000.00	4,000.00
Estimated bank balance June 30, 1945.....	14,000.00	—	—
Actual bank balance June 30, 1945.....	—	14,184.79	—
Estimated bank balance June 30, 1946.....	—	—	12,000.00
	<u>\$111,000.00</u>	<u>\$119,619.54</u>	<u>\$130,500.00</u>

DISBURSEMENTS

	<i>Fiscal Year 1945-46 Proposed</i>	<i>Fiscal Year 1945-46 Expended</i>	<i>Fiscal Year 1946-47 Proposed</i>
Rent.....	\$ 8,000.00	\$ 8,531.44	\$ 9,000.00
Salary of President.....	18,000.00	18,000.00	18,000.00
Salary of Vice President.....	10,000.00	10,000.00	10,500.00
Salaries of assistants.....	42,650.00	41,284.22	45,000.00
Traveling expenses, administrative.....	5,000.00	4,798.72	5,000.00
Stationery, printing, and supplies.....	1,400.00	1,640.16	1,400.00
Telephone and telegraph.....	1,800.00	2,600.94	2,200.00
Postage and express.....	1,200.00	754.41	1,200.00
Furniture and equipment.....	250.00	138.97	300.00
Committees—including Problems and Pol- icies Committee.....	8,000.00	9,850.29	14,000.00
Auditor's fee.....	1,400.00	1,400.00	1,400.00
General expense.....	1,500.00	2,193.45	2,200.00
Retirement annuity fund.....	3,300.00	1,924.38	3,000.00
Bulletin—Higher Education and National Affairs.....	5,000.00	4,133.27	5,000.00
Building fund.....	—	269.29	10,000.00
Contingent.....	3,500.00	100.00	2,300.00
	<u>\$111,000.00</u>	<u>\$107,619.54</u>	<u>\$130,500.00</u>

PUBLICATIONS REVOLVING FUND

BUDGET

From July 1, 1946 to June 30, 1947

ESTIMATED GROSS RECEIPTS

Tests and record cards.....	\$ 33,000.00
Books, <i>Educational Record</i> , Studies, etc.....	5,000.00
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.....	3,500.00
Cooperative Study in General Education.....	8,000.00
<i>Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States</i> (Good).....	20,000.00
<i>Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services</i> (Tuttle).....	85,000.00
Visual materials.....	23,000.00
Committee on Youth Problems.....	2,000.00
Cash Balance, July 1, 1946, estimated.....	21,500.00
Total.....	<u>\$201,000.00</u>

ESTIMATED GROSS DISBURSEMENTS

Printing, mailing, and promotion.....	\$ 36,000.00
Salaries.....	23,000.00
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.....	2,000.00
Cooperative Study in General Education.....	8,500.00
<i>Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States</i> (Good).....	17,000.00
<i>Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services</i> (Tuttle).....	73,000.00
Visual materials.....	27,000.00
Committee on Youth Problems.....	1,500.00
Income to be transferred to Council's general funds.....	4,000.00
Contingent.....	9,000.00
Total.....	<u>\$201,000.00</u>

F. W. LAFRENTZ & Co.

CERTIFIED PUBLIC ACCOUNTANTS

Executive Offices, New York City

Colorado Building

Washington 5, D. C.

August 27, 1946

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIRs:

We have examined the accounts of the American Council on Education from July 1, 1945 to June 30, 1946, inclusive, and submit herewith our report, including three exhibits, as follows:

STATEMENTS OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

Exhibit A—General Fund

Exhibit B—Publications Revolving Fund (*condensed statement*)

Exhibit C—Special Funds

Recorded cash receipts were deposited in bank, as evidenced by bank statements, and cash disbursements, as shown by the records, were supported by cancelled checks and vouchers.

The cash on deposit with the American Security and Trust Company at June 30, 1946 was confirmed by the depository. A summary of the balances on hand is as follows:

General Fund—Exhibit A.....	\$ 56,379.66	
Publications Revolving Fund—Exhibit B.....	48,455.72	
Special Fund—Exhibit C		
American Security & Trust Co.....	\$519,508.94	
Royal Bank of Canada.....	31.87	519,540.81
Total.....		<u>\$624,376.19</u>

Fidelity schedule bond in force covering the following named persons was presented for our inspection:

Dr. George F. Zook, President.....	\$ 5,000.00
Dr. Aaron J. Brumbaugh, Vice President.....	5,000.00
Mr. Corcoran Thom, Treasurer.....	15,000.00
Mrs. Grace R. Ontrich, Assistant Treasurer.....	15,000.00
Miss Helen Hurley, Assistant to President.....	5,000.00
Total.....	<u>\$ 45,000.00</u>

Insurance policies were also inspected covering workmen's compensation, fire insurance on furniture and fixtures and stock in the amount of \$26,000.00.

Investments of the General Fund consisting of United States Savings Defense Bonds, amounting to \$101,000.00 were inspected by us at the Union Trust Company safe deposit box on August 7, 1946, and the United States Treasury notes, amounting to \$20,000.00 in the custody of the American Security and Trust Company, were confirmed to us directly by the custodian. United States Savings Bonds, Series F, 1955, of a maturity value of \$3,400.00, with a cost value of \$2,516.00, purchased with funds accumulated from the sale of *American Universities and Colleges*, were also inspected.

Confirmations of contributions to the special grants were confirmed to us by the donors, but confirmation of payments during the period under review on contracts with the Government Departments were not obtained—the contracts with the departments, however, were submitted to us for inspection.

IN GENERAL

As the Council is preparing to alter the present system of accounting in the Publications Revolving Fund to an accrual basis, we submit herewith a summary of Inventories and Accounts Receivable under the certificates of your Manager of Publications, as of June 30, 1946:

	Cost	Estimated Value
Inventories:		
Publications Revolving Fund.....	\$45,555.00	\$19,450.00
Commission on Teacher Education.....	6,157.00	5,000.00
Accounts Receivable:		
Publications Revolving Fund.....	29,594.47	—
Commission on Teacher Education.....	9,548.08	—
Tuttle's Guide at Urbana, Illinois.....	8,371.94	—

Respectfully submitted,

F. W. LAURENTZ & Co.
Certified Public Accountants

EXHIBIT A
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Washington, D. C.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—GENERAL FUNDS

From July 1, 1945 to June 30, 1946

RECEIPTS			
Dues:			
Associate members.....	\$ 480.00		
Constituent members.....	6,400.00		
Institutional members.....	39,110.00		\$45,990.00
General Education Board—general support.....			45,000.00
Reimbursement for administration of grants:			
Canadian-American textbook project.....	\$ 48.78		
College Study on Intergroup Relations.....	289.87		
Committee on Education and Social Security.....	397.32		
Commission on Motion Pictures in Education.....	864.00		
Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education.....	832.92		
Committee on Teacher Education.....	536.91		
Conference on Preparation of Teachers for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes.....	60.98		
Cooperative Test Fund:			
Cooperative Test Service.....	\$ 1,329.51		
Teacher examination project.....	390.16	1,719.67	
Hawaiian Survey.....	73.15		
Inter-American Schools Service and grants-in-aid to U.S.-sponsored schools in Latin America.....	1,829.26		
Intergroup Education in Schools project.....	153.98		
Program of dissemination and implementation of results of Cooperative Study of Public School Finance.....	195.12		
Research in primary human abilities.....	59.56		
Social Studies Year Book.....	136.41		
Study of school-equipment specifications and standards.....	44.96		
	\$ 7,242.89		
Services:			
Banking, etc.....	\$ 1,541.40		
Clerical—special contracts.....	962.67		
Mimeographing.....	190.94		
Telephone.....	506.85	3,201.86	10,444.75
Other receipts:			
Income from Publications Revolving Fund.....	\$ 4,000.00		
Sale of U.S. Treasury notes:			
¾% due December 15, 1945.....	\$20,000.00		
1% due March 15, 1946.....	25,000.00	45,000.00	
Income from investments.....	625.00		49,625.00
Total Receipts.....			\$151,059.75
Cash on hand, July 1, 1945:			
American Security and Trust Company.....			57,670.16

\$208,729.91

DISBURSEMENTS

Administrative (net):

Salaries:

President.....	\$18,000.00	
Vice President.....	10,000.00	
Assistants.....	41,284.22	\$69,284.22

Traveling expense:

Administrative.....	\$ 3,659.86	
Executive Committee.....	1,138.86	4,798.72

Rent (net).....

Stationery, printing, and supplies.....		8,531.44
Postage and express.....		1,640.16
Telephone and telegraph.....		754.41
General expense.....		2,600.94
Accountant's fee.....		2,193.45
Retirement annuities.....	\$ 1,501.04	1,400.00
Past service annuities.....	423.34	1,924.38

Furniture and equipment.....

	\$ 230.97	
Less sales.....	92.00	138.97

Bulletin, Higher Education and National Defense:

Printing.....	\$ 2,352.93	
Announcements, order blanks, etc.....	53.04	
Postage.....	1,607.01	
Addressograph and mimeographing.....	1,575.80	
Stationery.....	573.99	
Local travel.....	16.70	

	\$ 6,179.47	
Less sales.....	2,046.20	4,133.27

Contingent:

Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.....	\$ 250.00	
Expense in preparation of statement on housing.....	100.00	
	\$ 350.00	

Less payment from Commission on Teaching Education, Publications Fund, for contribution to Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.....

\$ 250.00	100.00	\$ 97,499.96
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Committees of Council:

Problems and Policies.....	\$ 1,196.29	
Measurement and Guidance.....	1,030.64	
Student Personnel.....	1,529.89	
Executive Committee of the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government.....	1,544.61	
International education and cultural relations.....	1,124.91	
Surplus property.....	852.43	
Miscellaneous conferences:		
The National Commission for the Public Schools.....	\$ 999.47	
International film conference.....	708.52	
Preparation of instructors for junior colleges.....	332.71	
Housing education.....	40.80	
Religion and education contribution.....	150.00	
Educational rehabilitation.....	158.19	
Other conferences.....	181.83	2,571.52
		9,850.29

Other disbursements:

Transfer to American Council on Education for support, 1945-46, per agreement.....		45,000.00
Total Disbursements.....		\$152,350.23

Cash on hand, June 30, 1946:

American Security and Trust Company:		
General funds.....	\$12,000.00	
Building fund.....	269.29	
General Education Board grant.....	44,110.37	56,379.66
		<u>\$208,729.91</u>

EXHIBIT B

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

PUBLICATIONS REVOLVING FUND—CONDENSED STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

From July 1, 1945 to June 30, 1946

RECEIPTS

Tests and record cards.....	\$ 42,956.86
Books, <i>Educational Record</i> , Studies Series, etc.....	14,850.27
Reimbursement for publication services.....	4,639.27
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.....	4,485.50
Cooperative Study of Public School Finance.....	9,276.95
Conference on Preparation of Teachers for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes.....	694.59
<i>Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States</i>	69,483.78
<i>Guide to Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services</i>	86,034.26
Filmstrips (Kodachrome).....	4,299.00
School Plant Research Studies.....	26.96
Committee on Youth Problems.....	5,512.20
Committee on Asiatic Studies.....	406.20
U.S. filmstrip distribution.....	17,350.91
Total Receipts.....	\$260,016.75

Cash on hand, July 1, 1945:

American Security and Trust Company.....	19,933.06
	<u>\$279,949.81</u>

DISBURSEMENTS

Printing, mailing, and advertising.....	\$ 41,146.23
Special assistance in Publications Division.....	15,682.06
Mailing list costs.....	711.56
Project promotion costs.....	759.30
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.....	3,650.45
Cooperative Study in General Education.....	312.70
Committee on Youth Problems.....	1,209.46
Committee on Asiatic Studies.....	167.54
<i>Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States</i>	53,046.46
<i>Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services</i> ..	77,564.39
Filmstrips (Kodachrome).....	11,987.76
U.S. filmstrip distribution.....	13,283.87
Cooperative Study of Public School Finance.....	7,901.24
Income transferred to Council's general funds.....	4,000.00
Contingent.....	71.07
Total Disbursements.....	\$231,494.09

Cash on hand, June 30, 1946:

American Security and Trust Company.....	48,455.72
	<u>\$279,949.81</u>

EXHIBIT C

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Washington, D. C.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—SPECIAL FUNDS

From July 1, 1945 to June 30, 1946

	Balance July 1, 1945	Receipts	Disbursements	Balance June 30, 1946
<i>Funds</i>				
American School of Rio de Janeiro—for school supplies.....	\$ 91.62	\$ 2,950.00	\$ 2,558.61	\$ 483.01
College Study on Intergroup Relations:				
Grant—December 1, 1944 to March 31, 1946.....	121.63*	10,500.00	10,378.37	—
Grant—February 1, 1946 to February 1, 1947.....	—	5,862.02	3,572.78	2,289.24
Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences.....	—	75,000.00	18,395.10	56,604.90
Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs.....	—	57,588.70	62,048.33	5,448.37*
Commission on Motion Pictures in Education—Grant—January 1, 1945 to December 31, 1945.....	1,051.70	24,228.75	22,580.45	—
Commission on Motion Pictures in Education—Budget—January 1, 1946 to December 31, 1946.....	—	21,956.03	17,841.85	4,114.18
Committee on Education and Social Security:				
Grant—June 1, 1945 to February 28, 1946.....	491.49	—	273.04	—
Grant—September 1, 1945 to December 31, 1945.....	—	28,135.64	28,135.64	—
Grant—January 1, 1946 to June 30, 1946.....	—	23,927.53	11,288.56	12,639.17
Committee on Financial Aid to Schools in Latin America.....	19,375.00	—	19,375.00	—
Committee on Intercultural Relations of National Council of Teachers of English.....	188.32	1,900.00	1,065.10	834.90
Committee on Religion and Education—Grant—January 1, 1945 to December 31, 1945.....	41.07	150.00	—	188.32
Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education:				
Grant 2—April 16, 1944 to December 31, 1945.....	390.24	—	390.24	—
Grant 2—April 16, 1945 to June 30, 1946.....	1,892.78	13,612.50	15,395.28	—
Committee on Visual Aids in Education.....	21,908.28	45,564.76	44,854.05	22,618.99
Committee on Teacher Education and publications.....	368.35	2,320.92	3,356.23	666.96*
Conferences on Preparation of Teachers for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes.....	759.07	—	759.07	—
Cooperative Test Service and Teacher Examinations project and investments.....	195,822.27	218,793.16	205,504.76	209,110.67
Dissemination and implementation of results of Cooperative Study of Public School Finance.....	5,442.10	256.70	5,698.80	—
Editorial Staff for the United States Armed Forces Institute.....	24,079.46	7,605.89	31,685.35	—
Educational Survey in Near East.....	44,207.77	—	23,379.35	20,828.42
Foreign Language Study fund and project.....	5,304.57	388.19	1,051.67	4,641.09
For joint inquiry by scholars of Canada and the United States into history materials and methods of teaching on relations between the two countries:				
First phase of inquiry—American Committee.....	1,956.77	—	1,956.77	—
Second phase of inquiry—Canadian Committee.....	32.77	3,000.00	1,949.33	1,050.67
For research with respect to aeronautical studies preparatory for flight training:				
Contract No. CCA 20386.....	7,747.59*	—	—	—
Contract No. CCA 24238.....	—	7,747.59	392.51	393.51*

EXHIBIT C—Continued

	Funds		Balance July 1, 1945	Receipts	Disbursements	Balance June 30, 1946
Hawaiian Survey.....			3,118.54	—	630.37	2,488.17
Inter-American Schools Service and grants-in-aid to U.S.-sponsored schools in Latin America.....			54,082.54	—	54,082.54	—
Inter-group Education in Schools project: Grant—December 15, 1944 to September 30, 1945.....			2,434.40	—	2,434.40	—
Grant—September 1, 1945 to August 31, 1946.....			4,342.90	45,231.48	43,567.13	1,664.05
Manual on University and College Business Organization and Administration.....			—	10,000.00	51.96	4,208.94
Measurement book project.....			—	35,000.00	1,556.86	8,443.14
Pharmaceutical Survey.....			—	—	4,828.73	30,171.27
Preparation of brochure covering various aspects of student counseling—Committees on Student Personnel Work.....			1,177.85	1,250.00	224.08	2,203.77
Preparation of brochure on use of test results—Subcommittee on Student Personnel Work.....			587.68	—	4.58	583.10
Program of aid to American schools in the other American republics and maintenance of the Inter-American Schools Service.....			—	120,000.00	59,047.77	60,952.23
Program relating to defense and higher education.....			199.01	—	190.01	—
Research in primary human abilities.....			362.56	—	362.56	—
Revision of cumulative record forms and related materials.....			1,567.59	—	—	1,567.59
Social Studies Year Book.....			2,657.65	—	—	—
Study of school equipment specifications and standards.....			1,241.35	—	2,657.65	—
Study of Soviet Union Social Science Teaching.....			—	4,600.00	1,241.35	—
Study of teaching materials on inter-American subjects.....			1,051.12*	—	2,255.66	2,344.34
Survey of Inter-group Relations in Basic Teaching Materials—textbook study.....			2,765.11	4.50	—	1,056.62*
Survey of teaching materials to be used in assisting American-sponsored schools in China and neighboring countries.....			78.90	8,000.00	6,047.42	3,817.69
Validation of tests for primary mental abilities in relation to occupational interest and performance in high school curriculums.....			—	75,000.00	41.85	37.05
Totals.....			1,807.55	—	2,250.29	72,749.71
				—	1,399.70	407.85
					\$772,063.64	\$519,508.94
					\$390,986.92	\$850,585.66

*Overdraft.

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